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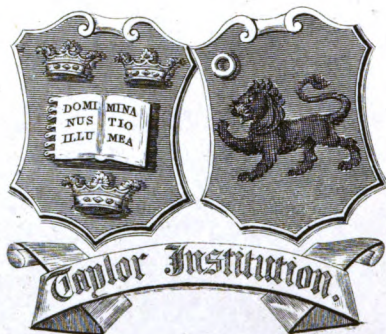
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To the Taylor Institution
Oxford
with the Greek version the
commentary of
William Shongate

A GRAMMAR
OF THE
GERMAN LANGUAGE.

BY
G. M. HEILNER.

LONDON:
JOHN MURRAY, ALBEMARLE STREET.

1842.

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PREFACE.

THE Grammar now offered to the English Public is designed both for the beginner and for the more advanced student. To the former, a few observations on the right mode of using it, may not be superfluous.

Among the various methods of learning a foreign language, that of beginning to read (and to speak, if there is an opportunity for it), after a short grammatical preparation, seems to be not only the most agreeable, but the most expeditious. To learn a number of minute rules and exceptions at a time when the student is yet unable to form, or even to understand, a short simple sentence, can have no other effect than that he will half forget them before they can be applied. For the general principles of a language, like all generalization, can engage attention, and be fully understood, only in as far as they explain and classify particulars with which we are previously acquainted. Accordingly, the best preparation, both for understanding and remembering a rule, is to have previously felt its want, so that on receiving it we at once see its practical utility. It is evident, therefore, that the first use to be made of grammar should be a selection of those rules and tables which immediately lead to reading and speaking, and which the learner

may generally be supposed to understand from the grammar of his own language. The term "selection" is advisedly used here; for the rules and tables in question are so few, that however short a grammar may be, it must necessarily contain more than is in the first instance required. On the other hand, to begin reading without any preparatory instruction, and to have to find out all the accidents of words and their imports as well as one can, is, to say the least of it, not the shortest way of acquiring a language. Surely, for the mere remembering of variable words, we must be able to ascertain their grammatical root, if we are not to commit to memory all the various forms of the same word.

In application of these remarks to the present work, the beginner is advised, after making himself acquainted with the leading rules of pronunciation, to learn, 1. the declension of the definitives (§ 29, 30); 2. the table of personal pronouns (p. 121); 3. the conjugation of the regular verbs (§ 77); 4. that portion of the principles of the irregular conjugation in § 83. which is printed in a larger type, together with the explanation of the list of irregular verbs in § 85. The list itself is intended rather for reference than to be learned by rote; as a thorough knowledge of all the irregular verbs can be acquired only by reading. The classification of them in § 86, and the table in *Obs.* 2 of the same section, will be found of more immediate use; the former for speaking, the latter in reading. The learner should then study § 89, with the observations in the same section on the position of the verb and of its component parts. These observations, though strictly belonging to syntax, are indispensable for understanding the conjuga-

tion of the German compound verbs, for which reason they have been introduced in the place now referred to.

If the speaking German is the immediate object of any learner, he must make himself acquainted with the principal rules on the declension of nouns (§ 40, 44, 51) even before studying the irregular verbs. The rules, also, on the gender of nouns, and even the leading rule in § 135, will then be required early. For mere reading, on the contrary, the declension of substantives and adjectives may be learned at a later period, as their inflections are few and easily understood, so that an accurate knowledge of them is not, at first, indispensable.

Provided with the information here pointed out to him, the student should forthwith commence reading some easy book. The copious table of contents will enable him readily to find the particular information for which, in the course of his reading, he may have occasion : and thus, by consulting the Grammar for the purpose of removing the difficulties which will from time to time occur, he will, in a great measure, have become familiar with its more important parts even before he sets about the regular perusal of it.

As of common origin with the English, as a language that has eminently developed its native capabilities, and has preserved its primitive grammatical forms to a greater extent than the other Teutonic dialects, the German is also in an etymological point of view deserving the English student's attention. In the course of his study he will often observe the close affinity still existing between the two languages, and will, perhaps with some surprise,

perceive how little time, conquest, and an inundation of foreign words, have been able to change the Teutonic character of the English language. The remarks interspersed through the work, pointing out the analogies of the two languages, may perhaps in this respect, interest the inquiring reader ; though most of them are introduced for a more practical purpose, especially the greater portion of § 26*, which will be found serviceable towards learning a very considerable quantity of German words.

What has been said hitherto refers chiefly to the most advisable mode of using this Grammar. Of its intrinsic value it is not for me to judge. That it is not a mere compilation will easily be perceived : some parts of it may, perhaps, possess an interest even for a German reader. But the great object of the work, to which all that it may contain of novelty, either in matter or manner, is intended to be subservient, is the facilitating to the English learner the acquisition of the German language ; an aim which, I would fain hope, the book will be found in a considerable degree to attain.

* It needs hardly to be expressly mentioned, that, with the exception of some observations and notes, the remarks of that section are taken principally from the first volume of the justly celebrated Teutonic grammar of Dr. Grimm.

London, December 1, 1841.

CONTENTS.

[Note. The figures marked with p. refer to the page; those without any designation, to the Section (§) which is marked over every page.]

INTRODUCTION. The different Teutonic dialects; the two main branches; modern German or Deutsch belongs to no particular province; the German is a primitive language; unnecessary introduction of foreign words. (p. 1-6.)

PART I. PRONUNCIATION and ORTHOGRAPHY.

Section.

1. The German alphabet.
2. Of vowels, including ä, ö, ü;—aa, ee, oo, ie. (p. 12.)
3. Diphthongs ei, ey, ai, ay, au, äu, eu.
- 4-8. Consonants; their classification (4); Labials, b, p, &c. (5); Palatals, c, ch, &c. (6); Linguals, d, t, {p...ft, ff, {ch, &c. (7); Liquids, l, m, n, r (8).
- Comparative table of all the sounds of the two languages (p. 21).
- 9-11. Pronunciations of words adopted from foreign languages.
12. Radical and servile syllables; prefixes and annexes or suffixes; syllables of inflection and derivation.
- 13, 14. Vowel quantity.
- 15-21. Accentuation.—German words (without prefixes) accent the first, foreign words (20), the last syllable; except certain compounds (16-18); remarks thereon (19); secondary accent (21).
- 22-25. ORTHOGRAPHY. Capital letters (22); marking vowel quantity (23-24); orthographical variations (25); table of abbreviations (p. 41).
26. Interchange of English and German consonants of one and the same organ of speech.

PART II. ETYMOLOGY.

27. The nine parts of speech; letters of inflection used in the declension and conjugation; vowel inflection (or Umlaut); grammatical root (*Obs.* p. 59).
28. Accidents marked by the declension; the nature of the four cases (*Obs.*); the various declinable parts of speech have different forms of declension.
29. Definitives; complete and defective declension.

Section.

30. The **ARTICLE**; its contraction with prepositions (*Obs.* 3).

THE SUBSTANTIVE (p. 59–95).

31–39. Gender of **NOUNS**; natural gender (82); diminutives (*Obs.*); designation of sex (33); grammatical gender depending on the form of the noun; monosyllables, and nouns ending in *e*, *en*, and *er*, are more generally of masculine (34); those in *e*, *heit*, *feit*, *ſchaft*, *ung*, and *ei*, of feminine (35); and those in *thum*, *ſal*, *chen*, and *lein*, and several others, of the neuter gender (36); nouns of two genders (37); gender of foreign nouns (38), and of geographical names (39).

40–43. Formation of the plural—by adding *e*, *en*, or (p. 76) *er* (40); by the vowel inflection (41); elision of the *e* of inflection (p. 72); foreign nouns (42); nouns defective in number (43).

44–49. Declension—four rules for forming the oblique cases (44); three declensions as exemplification of these rules (45–47); declension of foreign nouns (48); and of proper names (49).

50–52. **ADJECTIVES**—abstract and concrete (50); the latter alone are declined; employ different inflections when preceded by certain definitives (51); are used as substantives (52).

53–55. Degrees of comparison; their formation (53), and declension (54); some adj. are irregular, some defective, in this respect (55).

56, 57. **NUMERALS**.—Cardinals and ordinals (56); their declension; *zween*, *zwo* (*Obs.* 3); ordinals used as substantives; preceded by *je* (*Obs.* 6); *beide* and *andere* (*Obs.* 8); compounds (57) with *ſach*, *erlei*, *mal*, *halb*, and *ſelb*; derivatives, in *er*, *enſ*, *e*; the words *halb*, *gan*, *lauter*, and *eifel* (*Obs.* 3).

58. **PRONOUNS**.—Difference between personal and definitive pronouns.

59–61. *Personal* pronouns (59); their former genitives *mein*, *dein*, &c., compounded with *halben*, &c. (*Obs.* 1); origin of addressing in the third person (*Obs.* 2); the indefinite *eſ* (*Obs.* 3); reflective pronouns (60); implying also reciprocity (*Obs.* 2); *ſelbſt* (*Obs.* 3); *indefinite* personal pronouns (61)—*man*, *je-mand*, *niemand*, *jederman*.

62. *Definitive* pronouns, comprehending all the following (63–66); the genitives in *eſ* and *er* are seldom used when the noun is understood.

63. *Possessive* pronouns; have different forms when the noun is understood (*Obs.*).

64. *Demonstrative* pronouns—*dieſer*, *jener*, *der*, *derjenige*, *derſelbe*, *ſolcher*; used for *er*, *ſie*, *eſ*; *beſſen* and *deren*, for *ſein* and *ibr* (*Obs.* 3); the compounds *damit*, *hiemit*, &c. (*Obs.* 4), *deſgleichen* (*Obs.* 5).

Section.

65. *Relative* (and interrogative) pronouns—*der, welcher, wer, and was*; how to render *who, which, that* (p. 137 *seq.*), and *what* (*Obs.* 4); relative adverbs—*so, wo, and da, womit, &c.* (*Obs.* 5).
66. *Quantitative* pronouns—*jeder, aller, mancher, mehrere, viele, wenige, &c.*; their import and use (*Obs.* 1); *genug, etwas, nichts* (*Obs.* 3); how to render *some* and *any* (*Obs.* 4).
THE VERB (p. 146–218).
67. Various kinds of verbs—transitive, neuter, &c.
68. Explanation of moods and participles; the two leading features of the subjunctive; there are no compound participles in German (*Obs.* 2).
69. Of tenses; three of indefinite, and three of complete action.
70. Of persons and numbers of the verb.
71. The *regular* conjugation (p. 153–181).
- 72–74. Inflections of regular verbs; grammatical root of verbs; table, shewing all the simple forms of a regular verb (72); elision of the *e* of inflection (73); the augment *ge* (74).
- 75, 76. Auxiliary verbs—*haben, seyn, and werden*, used as auxiliaries of the conjugation (75); tables of their own conjugation (p. 158); their function as auxiliaries (76); how to render the English auxiliary *to do*, and the paraphrastic conjugation—e. g. “I am waiting,” &c. (*Obs.* 3).
77. Paradigm or table of the whole regular conjugation, both of the active and passive voice.
- 78–80. Remarks on some parts of the conjugation:—on the tenses of the subjunctive (78); on the use of *seyn* as an auxiliary of the passive voice (79), and as an auxiliary of certain neuter verbs (80).
- 81, 82. Potential mood; formed merely by auxiliaries (*viz. können, mögen, wollen, dürfen, sollen, müssen, and lassen*); their conjugation (81); employ in certain cases the infinitive form for that of the part.-past (*Obs.* 2); their import (82); the infinitive they govern is often understood (*Obs.* 3); how to render the English auxiliaries *may* (*Obs.* 4), and *shall* and *will* (*Obs.* 5).
- 83–86. The *irregular* conjugation (p. 181–198) forms the imperfect and participle past by changing the radical vowel (83), and with it sometimes also its vowel quantity (*Obs.* 3); table of the irregular conjugation (p. 183); derivatives of irregular verbs (84); become regular when implying causation (*Obs.* 2); list of all the irregular verbs (85); their division into five classes (86); analogies of German and English irregular verbs (*Obs.* 1); table, for ascertaining in reading the infinitive of an irregular verb (p. 198).

Section.

87. Reflective verbs ; their import ; used passively (*Obs.* 2), and reciprocally (*Obs.* 3).
88. Impersonal verbs ; some have an oblique case corresponding to the English nominative ; denote in the passive form an action going on, in the reflective form an aptitude (*Obs.* 2) ; omission of *es* (*Obs.* 3).
89. Compound verbs ; nineteen separable particles (*ab, an, auf, &c.*) ; other components of the verb (*Obs.* 2) ; the separation arises from the different position of the assertive and non-assertive verb (*Obs.* 3) ; a few compound verbs are defective (p. 209).
90. *Ueßer, unter, um, and durch*, are both separable and inseparable, according to their import.
- 91-93. Import of the infinitive (91) and participles in their use as verbal nouns ; *zu*, and *zum*, before infinitives (*Obs.* 2) ; the infinitive is used passively after *seyn*, and often also after *sehen, hören, and lassen* (*Obs.* 3) ; the present participle joined with *zu* has a future passive import (92) ; in what sense the past participle can be used adjectively (93) ; anomalous import of some past participles (*Obs.* 1) ; some are joined with *kommen* (*Obs.* 2) ; may be used imperatively (*ibid.*).
- 94-99. ADVERBS.—Their formation (94) ; compounds with *Weise* and *Maßen* (*Obs.* 2 and 3) ; degrees of comparison (95) ; superlatives with *aufß*, or, *auf daß* (*Obs.* 2) ; *gar, sehr* (*Obs.* 3) ; adverbs noting direction (96) ; *her* and *hin*, compounded with other particles, as *herauf, hinauf, &c.* ; correlative particles noting *scene* and *aim* (p. 224) ; *auf* and *offen, da* and *dar*, (*Obs.* 4) ; adverbs of time (97),—*ie, immer, einmal, einst* ; how to render the English *ever* (*Obs.* 1) ; *erst, schon, noch* (p. 228, seq.) ; *ja, wohl, doch* (98) ; *gut, and wohl* (*Obs.* 2) ; adverbs of affirmation and negation (99) ; *nicht*, implying emphasis (*Obs.* 1) ; two negatives imply affirmation (*Obs.* 2).
- 100-107. PREPOSITIONS.—Those governing the genitive (101) ; the dative (102) ; the accusative (103) ; the dative and accusative (104) ; import of those most in use (105—compare also their import as separable particles in § 117) ; those noting subject-matter (*Obs.* 6) ; cause (*Obs.* 7) ; final cause (*Obs.* 8) ; noting time (106) ; prepositions used as adverbs (107) ; the particle repeated in the same clause, and characteristic distinction of prepositions and adverbs (*Obs.* 1) ; how to render the English *before, after, since, and by* (*Obs.* 3).
- 108, 109. CONJUNCTIONS.—Their division into pure, subordinative, and adverbial (108) ; import of some of them,—*as, auch, denn, so, &c.* (109) ; of the compounds with *ob* and *wenn* (*Obs.* 1) ;

Section.

of *doch*, *jedoch*, *indessen*, &c. (*Obs.* 2); of *allein*, *aber*, and *sondern* (*Obs.* 3); conjunctions noting cause (*Obs.* 4); comparison (*Obs.* 5); time (*Obs.* 6).

110. Interjections.

FORMATION OF WORDS (p. 271-298).

- 111-115. Derivation; is formed by annexes (or suffixes), and prefixes (111); the endings *e*, *ei*, *er*, *heit* or *feit*, *ling*, *niss*, *schaft*, *thum*, and *ung*, form substantives (112); *bar*, *en*, *haft*, *icht*, *ig*, *isch*, *lich*, and *sam*,—adjectives (113); and *el* and *ig*,—verbs (114); verbs in *iren* (*Obs.*); the prefixes *be*, *ent*, *er*, *ge*, *ver*, and *zer*, form verbs (115); their etymology and import; *ge* forms nouns also (p. 288).
- 116-117. Composition.—Compound nouns (116); words most used in composition (*Obs.* 2); the negative *un* (*ibid.*); compound verbs (117); import of the separable particles *ab*, *an*, &c.; particles of nearly synonymous import (*Obs.* 2); and of opposite import (*Obs.* 3).

PART III. SYNTAX.

118. Division of Syntax into the use of the declension (p. 298-324), the use of conjugation (p. 324-345), and the order of words (p. 345-353).
119. Use of the articles.
120. Agreement of nouns with their dependents; apposition; the English *of*, not translated (*Obs.* 3—see also § 123, *Obs.* 3).
- 121-125. Cases; on what words they depend (121).—NOMINATIVE (122); verbs with two nominatives; Vocative (*Obs.* 2).—GENITIVE (123); import depending on its position (*Obs.* 2); nouns of quantity govern no case (*Obs.* 3); *of*, rendered by *von* (*Obs.* 4); lists of verbs and adjectives governing this case; adverbial genitive (p. 314).—DATIVE (124); answers to the English *to* and *for* (*Obs.* 1); to the English genitive (p. 320); is governed by compound and other verbs (p. 316 *seq.*); by adjectives (p. 321).—ACCUSATIVE (125); is governed by all transitive, and by most impersonal and reflexive verbs; is used adverbially in noting time, space, quantity, and value; and also with many neuter verbs (*Obs.* 1); verbs joined with two accusatives (*Obs.* 2).
126. Passive voice; what verbs admit of it.
127. Persons and numbers of the verb; when its subject consists of a relative pronoun, or of two nouns, or of a collective noun (p. 325 *seq.*), or of *es*, *daß*, &c. (*Obs.* 1); propositions without a subject (*Obs.* 2).

Section.

128. Tenses—present and past infinitive (*Obs.* 1); the tenses of the indicative often differ in the two languages; two sets of tenses in the subjunctive—present tenses for reporting, and imperfect tenses for imaginary cases (p. 329); tenses of dependent verbs are not regulated by the moment of speaking (*Obs.* 3); tenses of the potential auxiliaries (p. 331); how to render the English past infinitive when not denoting complete action (*Obs.* 5); *wollen* joined with a past infinitive (*Obs.* 7); omission of *haben* and *seyn* in subordinate clauses (*Obs.* 8).
- 129–132. Moods.—The SUBJUNCTIVE (130); is used after relatives referring to general negatives, after conjunctions answering to the English, *as if*, *in order that*, or, *to than* before an infinitive; it softens assertions (p. 336).—The IMPERATIVE (131); may be expressed also paraphrastically; passive imperative (*Obs.* 1).—The INFINITIVE (132) is used with and without *zu*; three infinitives following each other without *zu* (*Obs.* 2); the subject with its verb cannot be turned into the accusative with the infinitive (*Obs.* 3); verbs generally joined with an infinitive; how to render the English *as* before an infinitive (*Obs.* 4), and verbals in *ing* governed by a preposition (*Obs.* 5).
133. The Participles; how to render the English nominative absolute, and compound participles, such as, “having finished,” “being presented”; past participles used absolutely, and actively (*Obs.* 3).
- 134, 135. ORDER OF WORDS; *the natural order* (134); the words properly belonging to the predicate follow reverse orders in the two languages (p. 346); rules on the order of the several parts of speech (p. 347 *seq.*);—*the inverted order* (135); the finite assertive verb occupies the second place in a sentence (*Obs.* 1); leading features of the German order of words (p. 353).
- Appendix on Versification*, p. 354–361.
- Supplementary Notes*:—1st, on the identity of *mit* and *with*; 2nd, on the identity of *ſelt*, *tilt*, and *tent*; 3rd, on the origin of the compound tenses; 4th, on the origin of the regular and irregular conjugations.

ERRATA ET CORRIGENDA.

Page 12 last line but one, for 7 read 6.

- 30 line 9, *omit the example of spazieren;—also the three examples of foreign origin in the next page.*
- 44 — 4 from the bottom, for säuen read tauen.
- 66 — 6, for 45 read 46.
- 70 — 1, insert before Demuth, Anmuth, grace.
- 82 — 6 from the bottom, omit Verleumdung, slander.
- 84 — last line but one, for arrester read a person arrested.
- 90 — 6, for Berg read Tag.
- 101 — 27, for Obs. 4. and 5. read Obs. 1.
- 110 — 7, for Obs. 3. read Obs. 4.
- 111 — 9 from the bottom, for incloses read includes.
- 112 — 11, for abgehärtete read abgehärtet.
- 129 — 18, transpose (or dernämliche) to the next line after derselbe.
- 136 — 34, for 2 read 6.
- 149 — 21, omit the words or rather circumscribed.
- 175 — 5, for müßte read mußte.
- — — 31, for all read nearly all.
- 182 — 15, for second read first.
- 199 — 19, for nieder knien read niederknien.
- — — 27, for 2 read 1.
- 200 — 7, for 86 read 82.
- 204 — 19, omit the words to follow.
- 216 — last line, for eine read ein.
- 220 — 21, for § 56. Obs. 2. read § 55. Obs. 4.
- 239 — 11, transpose in after runs about.
- 245 — 19, for einem read einen.
- 246 — 21, omit the words and von.
- 263 — 12, insert at before this moment.
- 266 — 33, for 4 read 1.
- 272 — 12, for § 114. read p. 286.
- 274 — 5, for Obs. read third exception.
- 284 — 4 from the bottom, transpose (a thing) after the word by in the preceding line.
- 296 — 13 from the bottom, for 97 read 96.
- 300 — 4 from the bottom, for damiter read damit et.
- 317 — 15, for 4 read 3.
- 323 — 12 from the bottom, for or pronouns referring to things read or if the object in question be a noun.
- 334 — 2, for Obs. 1. read Obs. 2.

AN INTRODUCTION

TO

GERMAN GRAMMAR.

1. **THE** German, or rather Teutonic, language (*Deutsche Sprache*) is divided, even in its most ancient remains, into two principal branches: viz. the High German (*Hochdeutsch*), and Low German (*Niederdeutsch*). The latter was principally spoken in the north of Germany, extending along the whole coast of the Baltic; and the dialect called *Plattdeutsch*, which is still spoken by the common people in those parts, belongs to this branch. The seat of the High German was the South or Upper Germany; and the provincial dialects of that country are still, to a certain degree, remains of the Old High German.

Each of these two main branches resolves itself again, as it may easily be supposed, into several minor ones. Thus the Old Saxon, Anglo-Saxon (and consequently also the English), the Friesic, the Dutch, and even the Icelandic and the Scandinavian languages, belong all, more or less, to the Lower branch. The High German was subdivided into the Francic, Allemannic or Suabian, Bavarian, &c.; but has given birth to no other written language than the present German. To what branch the *Mæso-Gothic* belongs (the dialect into which *Ulphilas*, a bishop of the *Mæso-Goths*,

in the 4th century, translated the Scriptures, and the fragments of which are the oldest remnants extant of the Teutonic), is not yet decided among philologists; though our latest writers upon the subject think it more nearly allied to the Lower branch. Compare § 26. *Obs.* 1.

2. The general preponderance of Upper Germany, both in civilization and in political power, and particularly the circumstance of all the emperors, with the exception of those of the House of Saxony, being princes of Upper Germany, were the natural causes of its language being sooner cultivated, of its becoming that of the court, of public transactions, and of the literature of the time, and even of its early spreading, to a limited degree, into the North. The Franks having been the founders of the German empire, and princes of that tribe having been for a long time, and at different periods, the emperors of Germany, theirs naturally became the leading and court dialect; and hence the Old German is often called Francic (*Fränkisch*), which name was sometimes given to the language even as late as the 16th century. However, the celebrated songs of the Minnesingers (the Troubadours of Germany), under the splendid reign of the Suabian emperors in the 12th century, were in the Allemannic dialect.

3. The Reformation forms an important epoch in the history of the German language; as the language naturally constituted the chief instrument in that long religious struggle, it became a powerful engine in the hands of Luther and his friends, who, in using it, did much to enrich, refine, and improve it*.

* Adelung, our great lexicographer and one of our chief grammarians, asserts that Luther's improvement sprung merely from his writing in the Upper Saxon, his native dialect, which, from the flourishing state of that province, had become more refined than that of any other. But, in op-

Luther is considered by many as the father of the present German. His writings, particularly his translations of the Scriptures and his Sermons, were read with eagerness by the whole nation, and imitated by most writers of that time: and the North of Germany, where the *Plattdeutsch* was beginning to be cultivated, and was likely to become a written tongue, received Luther's language along with his doctrines. The High German, thus, as it were, revised and improved, has been since cultivated by the writers of all Germany, and has by degrees become the language of the pulpit, of the stage, of literature,—in short, of the educated classes of the whole country; and is that which is now meant by the general name of German (*Deutsch*), and which forms the sole subject of the present Grammar. From its origin it is yet often called *Hochdeutsch*; but no longer in opposition merely to Low German, but in contradistinction to the provincial dialects of all Germany.

Since the commencement of the modern German literature, about the middle of the last century, the fertility and great power of the language, which, by drawing on its own inexhaustible resources of derivation and composition, can express every shade of thought and feeling, even to the very nicest, have been more and more displayed by successive

position to this opinion, Luther's own has been justly quoted by a late writer. In his Table Talk (*Tischreden*) Luther says, that he uses the general language of Germany, in order that he may be understood both by the Upper and Lower Germans. This general language, he continues, is that used in courts of law and in all public instruments (*Ranzelleisprache*) in Saxony; and is also the language of the courts of all the princes, and of all the Imperial cities in Germany. Now, Adelung himself elsewhere says repeatedly, that the prevailing language in Germany at the time of the Reformation, and even for some time after, was in fact no other than the written language of the South of Germany: *i. e.* the Old High German. So that it is clear from Luther's own testimony that he did not write in the exclusive dialect of Upper Saxony, nor of any other province.

poets, philosophers, translators, and authors of all descriptions.

4. Our grammarians now generally agree that there is no leading province, or city, the idiom and pronunciation of which are entitled to be considered the standard of pure German; but that all the provinces have, as it were, an equal share in the legislation of the language; although some approach nearer to perfection and purity than others.

Adelung, indeed, has taken great pains to prove that our modern written German (*Hochdeutsch*) is no other than the Upper Saxon dialect, and more particularly that of Meissen, where the language, according to him, is most correctly spoken, and which place, therefore, he considers as the Athens of Germany; asserting, that whatever deviates from its idiom and pronunciation, must be deemed a provincialism. This doctrine has, however, not convinced the nation at large: on the contrary, this pretended superiority of Upper Saxony in purity of language, has been rejected, almost unanimously, by the other provinces, and not recognised by our most valued authors *.

* If it be desirable for a language to have a central place, whose usage forms its standard (and I am inclined to think that colloquial language, and light prose in general, is benefited by it), it can only be such a one as forms a rallying point of the polished and learned of the nation, and takes the lead in manners and civilization; since language is but the reflex of national character and manners. But such a national focus does not exist in Germany; and if the want of it is, in some respects, disadvantageous, the inconvenience is amply counterbalanced by the advantage of the language being thus less exposed to the caprice of fashion. This gives to etymology and analogy more weight, the genius of the language becomes more fully developed, and its words less liable to become degraded and vulgar, from associations of ideas merely accidental. They thus retain more of their primitiveness and original simplicity, and become better adapted to poetry and the higher prose; to which the language has, indeed, a natural tendency.

The standard of correctness in the German language must then be looked for in the usage of the educated classes of the whole country ; and what they, or a great majority of them, agree in considering as correct and pure, although, from local habits, they may not always practically conform to it, must be recognised as the rule of the language ; as decided usage must form the first law of every tongue. In those cases in which the suffrages are divided, or where the extent of usage cannot be ascertained, analogy must be resorted to as the arbiter : and even in cases where the usage of the majority is opposed to analogy, still, if a very considerable minority is on its side, such analogy ought to be followed.

5. The German is undoubtedly an original language ; closely allied to several ancient tongues, particularly with the Greek and Latin, not only in its roots, but even in its inflections* ; but not derived from any of them. The circumstance of the principal accent in German lying always on the radical syllable, and the fact of nearly the whole rich stock of words in the language being derived regularly, and agreeably to simple analogies, from a very small quantity of roots†, are alone sufficient internal evidence of its originality.

In later times, however, especially from about the middle of the 17th to the middle of the 18th century, such a multitude of words, borrowed from the learned and the French languages, were introduced wantonly and without the least necessity, from mere bad taste and affectation, that there were in the writings of those times almost as many foreign

* The German present tense, for instance, of the verb "to have," nearly a thousand years ago, ran thus: *habem, habes, habet, habemes, habet, habent*. See Grimm's *Deutsche Grammatik*.

† Adelung supposes the whole number of roots not to exceed six hundred.

as German words, quite deforming the language, and giving to the compositions of that period an uncouth and motley appearance.

An improved taste, however, taught our writers how little these foreign phrases accord with the expressive simplicity of a language, in which every word belongs, as it were, to a large aboriginal family, and where the import of every word is known and understood, almost at first sight, from its analogical formation and strict family resemblance. These foreign words have, therefore, for the most part, gradually become disused, and are replaced by other, genuine German words, either existing before, or newly formed. A considerable number, however, still remain in the language, and are yet used in writing and conversation. These all retain something foreign about them, denoting their origin; many are distinguished by the pronunciation of their letters, some even by their inflections, but most by their accentuation; which peculiarities will all be noticed in their proper places.

These few remarks, whilst they elucidate some characteristic features of the High German, may not be unacceptable to the learner, as a short outline of the history of a language so closely allied to the English,—an affinity which the student will frequently have occasion to observe in the course of the following pages.

A GRAMMAR OF THE GERMAN LANGUAGE.

THE present Grammar is divided into three parts: viz.
1. PRONUNCIATION and ORTHOGRAPHY*; 2. ETYMOLOGY;
3. SYNTAX.

PART I. PRONUNCIATION AND ORTHOGRAPHY.

§ 1. OF THE CHARACTERS USED IN GERMAN.

The characters presented in the following alphabet, are used generally in the printing of German books; although many are also printed in Roman type. They are the same letters, but improved and simplified, as those formerly in use over the greatest part of Europe, and which are known in English under the name of Black letter.

The letters exhibited in the annexed plate are used by the Germans in their handwriting; but German written in the usual English letters is read, without inconvenience, by any native.

* Most of that matter which in English grammars is generally given under the head of Prosody, is here comprehended under that of Pronunciation. A short explanation of German versification will be given at the end of the work.

THE ALPHABET.

Characters.	Names.	English.	<i>Observe the difference between the letters</i>
A	a	ah	a
B	b	bay	b
C	c	tsay	c
D	d	day	d
E	e	ay	e
F	f	ef	f
G	g	gay	g
H	h	hah	h
I	i	ee	i
J	j	yot	j
K	k	kah	k
L	l	el	l
M	m	em	m
N	n	en	n
O	o	o	o
P	p	pay	p
Q	q	koo	q
R	r	err	r
S	s	ess	s
T	t	tay	t
U	u	oo	u
V	v	fow	v
W	w	vay	w
X	x	iks	x
Y	y	ypsilon	y
Z	z	tset	z

To this Alphabet must be added the following letters :
 ä or á, ö or ô, ii or ù, ß, ç (*ch*), ſch, ph, all representing
 simple sounds, although the last four, it will be observed,
 are compound characters.

Obs. 1. ä, ö, ü, are, if capitals, often written *Æ, Ð, Û* (or even *U*); and in foreign words and names, ä represents æ, and ö, œ; as *Cæsar*, *Phœnix*, for *Cæsar*, *Phœnix*. Nevertheless they are considered in German as single characters; and in the dictionaries they are, in respect to their alphabetical order, regarded merely as a, o, u: thus *öde* stands before *oder*; *Bürde* after *Bund*; &c.

Obs. 2. The character *ß* is a contraction from *fs*, as its name (*ess tset*) indicates. In those cases, however, where it stands for *ff* (see § 24), it seems to be a contraction from *fs*. In German books printed in Roman characters *ß* is mostly represented by *fs*, and *ff* by *ss*; although sometimes *ss* is also used for *ß*.

The following double consonants, the learner will perceive, are somewhat contracted: *ct, ck; ff, ff; ff, ss; ft, st; g, tz.*

PRONUNCIATION OF LETTERS.

In German every letter is pronounced, or has some influence on the pronunciation (see § 13 and 14); and its power or pronunciation may generally be known from its name.

§ 2. OF VOWELS.

The characters representing simple vowel sounds are nine: viz.

a, ä, e, i, o, ö, u, ü, y.

A has always one and the same sound; namely, that of the English *a* in *art*, *last*, or *father*; as, *Äder*, *vein*; *war*, *was*; *Äden*, *thread*; *all*, *all*; *ab*, *off*; *was*, *what*.

Æ or *ä* has always the second sound of the German *e*, as explained below, or that of the English *ai* in *air*; ex-
während, *during*; *täglich*, *daily*; *Härte*, *hardness*.

Ê has three sounds: viz.

1.) A slender sound, like that of the English *ai* in *ail*, *fail**, or like the French *é fermé*.

* I think I do not mistake in drawing a distinction between the sound of the English *ai* (by whatever letters this sound is represented) when followed by *r*;

It is pronounced with this sound :

a.) When it is doubled (ee), or followed by *h* ; as in *See*, *sea* ; *Armee*, *army* ; *gehen*, *to go* ; *Reh*, *roe*.

Except the following words, in which the *e* of the radical syllable (see § 12) has the following broad sound : *befehlen*, *to command* ; *empfehlen*, *to recommend* ; *fehlen*, *to fail* ; *Rehle*, *throat* ; *Mehl*, *flour* ; *nehmen*, *to take* ; *stehlen*, *to steal*,—with the words derived from them ; and most of those words in which *ee* and *eh* are followed by *r* ; as, *begehren*, *to demand* ; *Heer*, *army*, &c. &c.

b.) In the first syllables of the following words :

Ceder, cedar.	Je,	ever.	Regel, rule.
Demuth, humility.	Jemals,		Scene, scene.
Ege, harrow.	Jemand,	somebody.	Schweden, Sweden.
Epheu, ivy.	Jener,	that.	Schlesien, Silesia.
Ewig, eternal.	Meve,	sea-gull.	Wenig, little.
Jeder, every.	Peter,	Peter.	

and in the accented syllables of substantives terminating in *e* ; as, *Trompète*, *trumpet* ; *Pastête*, *pasty*, &c.

Obs. 1. There are several words in which usage is divided, in respect to this vowel, between this and the following broad sound ; so that it is difficult to decide which ought to be adopted in these cases.

2.) A broad and deep sound, like that of the English *ai* in *air*, *fair**, or like the French *è ouvert*. The corresponding short sound to this, is that of the English *e* in *bet*, *get*, *sell*, &c., which, in quality, (which alone is under consideration here,) is exactly the same as *ai* in *air*.

The *e* has this sound in all the radical syllables not belonging to the preceding rules ; that is

a.) In the greatest part of those where it is of long quantity (see § 13) ; as in *beten*, *to pray* ; *leben*, *to live*.

b.) In all those, without exception, in which it is of short

as in *air*, *fare*, *bear*, *care*, *there*, *where*, &c. : and those cases, where it is not followed by that letter ; as in *ail*, *fail*, *fain*, *day*, *bay*, &c. The difference appears to me to be the same as that between the French *è* and *é* ; the vowels of the former class of words sounding like *è*, those of the latter like *é* ; thus, *a pear*, *a mare*, have the same sound as the French *père* (father), *mère* (mother) ; the first syllable in *dairy* is like the French preposition *dès* (from) ; but *day* sounds like the French *dé* (a die.)

* See preceding Note.

quantity; *i. e.* in which it is followed by more than one consonant (§ 14); as in *Bett, bed*; *Fell, skin* (just like the English *bet, fell*); *Feld, field*; *wetten, to bet*.

3.) An obscure sound, like that of the English *e* in *hammer* or *angel*. Thus it sounds in almost all servile syllables (see § 12): as, *saget, (he) says*; *Liebe, love*; *Verräther, betrayer*; *Nagel, nail*; *arbeitete, (he) worked*; *hatte, (he) had*.

Obs. 2. In the prefixes *be* and *ge*, as in *Gebet, prayer*; *Beweis, proof*; *e* has more of its slender sound; and in the termination *en*, it is nearly mute, as in English: as, *offen, open*; *gestohlen, stolen*; like *off'n, gestoh'n*.

ſ sounds like the English *ee*, or *i* in *pin, fill*; as, *mir, me*; *ihn, him*; *der Wille, the will*; *wild, wild*; *Kind, child*; *Ding, thing*.

o has two sounds: viz.

1.) When it is of long quantity (see § 13), and not followed by *r*, it has that of the English *o* in *so, vote*; as, *oben, above*; *schon, already*.

2.) When it is of short quantity (see § 14), or followed by *r*, it has that of the English *o* in *God, hot, for*; as, *hoffen, to hope*; *kommen, to come*; *Gold, gold*; *Wolle, wool*; *Thor, gate*; *vor, before*; *Ohr, ear*.

ö or ö. There is no sound in the English language corresponding with that of this vowel. It is like the French *œu* in *œuvre*; and is formed by rounding the lips as if to pronounce *o*, and then pronouncing the English *a*; as, *böse, bad*; *hören, to hear*; *völlig, entirely*.

u has the sound of the English *oo*, or of *u* in *bull, full*; as, *du, thou* (just like the English verb *do*); *Ruhe, rest*; *Ruthe, rod*; *Hund, dog*.

ü or ü. This sound, likewise, is not to be found in the English language. It has the power of the French *u*; and is formed by rounding the lips as if to pronounce the English *oo*, and then pronouncing the English *ee*; as, *Mühe, trouble*; *fühlen, to feel*; *füllen, to fill*.

ŷ has the power of the German i; as, *Sylbe, syllable; Gyps, plaster*. But, except in the diphthongs *ey* and *ay* (for which see below), it occurs only in words of foreign origin. Compare Observation in § 9, and § 25.

Observe. The second vowels in *aa, ee, oo, ie*, are not pronounced, but serve merely to lengthen the preceding vowels without changing their usual sound*; as, *Paar, pair; Seele, soul; Schooß, lap; die, the*; which are pronounced *Pār, Sēle, Schōß*, with long vowel quantity; except *Fee, fairy*; in which *ee* is pronounced as two syllables, *Fee-e*:—compare also § 11 and *Obs. 2* in § 12.

§ 3. DIPHTHONGS,

Or two vowel sounds, pronounced so rapidly as to form but one syllable, are represented in German by the vowels that express their elementary sounds; and are

ei, ey, ai, ay, au, äu, eu.

Ei Ey Ai Ay	{	are all pronounced like the English word <i>eye</i> ; ex. <i>sein, his; seyn, to be; Kaiser, emperor; May, May.</i>
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Obs. 1. Some provinces pronounce *ai* with a broader sound than *ei*, so that the sound of the *a* is predominant; which pronunciation is more according to its constituent parts, and is considered by some grammarians more correct.

Au is much like the English *ou* in *out*; except that the German sound is somewhat broader, the sound of *a* being rather predominant; as, *Haus, house; Maus, mouse; laufen, to run.*

Aeu or *äu* is nearly similar to the English *oi* in *oil, boil*; only that the German sound approaches in its termination somewhat to that of the English *oo*. Example, *Häuser, houses; Bäume, trees.*

* These mute vowels, as well as the mute *h* (see *h* in § 7), will in the following rules be denominated the *lengthening letters* or *marks of long quantity*.

Eu is much like the preceding äu, but less broad at the beginning of its sound, and rather a little shorter in its quantity; as, heute, *to-day*; Feuer, *fire*.

Obs. 2. Poets allow themselves such rhymes as Glück and Blick, Höhen and Wehen, Gebäude and Weide, Feuer and Schleier; and according to the provincial pronunciation these words rhyme exactly.

Obs. 3. Oi or oy occurs only in a few proper names, and in the word Boi, *buoy*; and is pronounced as the English oi. The vowels ui in Duisburg (the name of a town) are pronounced like ü. In the interjections pfui, *fie*, and hui (an exclamation of haste), they form a diphthong, which is pronounced like the French oui (yes).

Obs. 4. The learner must not mistake two vowels belonging to different syllables for a diphthong; see § 11, and Obs. 2 in § 12.

§ 4. CONSONANTS

are divided by grammarians in different ways.

It will be useful for our purpose to adopt that classification, which divides them according to the organs, by which they are chiefly formed; except l, m, n, r, which we shall range separately, under their usual name of Liquids. Accordingly, we have the following classification of all the consonant characters, whether simple or compound:

1. Labials, or letters produced by the lips: b, p, ph, f, v, w.
2. Palaticks (also called Gutturals), or letters formed in the palate and throat: c, ch, chz, g, ng, k, ck, h, j, qu, r. .
3. Linguals (also called Dentals), or letters formed by pressing the tongue against the gums and teeth: d, t, th, ð, ð, f, ß, sch.
4. Liquids: l, m, n, r.

§ 5. LABIALS: b, p, ph, f, v, w.

B, P, Ph, and F, are all pronounced as in English: bei, *by*; Pein, *pain*; Philosophie, *philosopher*; fallen, *to fall*.

B however, if it stands after the vowel of the syllable to which it belongs, is pronounced like p: thus, Lob, *praise*;

tauk, *deaf*; Erbsē, *pea*, are pronounced *Łop*, *taup*, *Erpsē*. But when by inflection a vowel is annexed, as, *sie loben*, *they praise*; *der Taube*, *the deaf man*, it resumes its original flat sound.

Obs. It would seem to be an ancient practice in German, as it is in other languages, to change the flat sounds into sharp ones, or to pronounce them with more pressure, at the end of words; for in Old German we find *h*, *đ*, *g*, *h* and *v*, (which then had the sound of the English *v*) at the end of words, regularly changed into their corresponding sharp letters, *p*, *t*, *f*, *ch* and *f*; which, when by inflection a syllable was annexed, became again *h*, *đ*, *g*, *h*, *v*. Thus they wrote *gap*, plural *gahen*; *schiet*, plural *schieden*; *Taf*, genitive *Tages*; *Wolf*, genitive *Wolpes**; *sach*, plural *sahen*†. This change of sound of the above letters is no longer marked in *writing*—*h*, *đ*, *g*, *h* being now allowed to remain at the end of words—but it is still retained in the *pronunciation* of *h*, *g* and *đ* (see *g* and *đ* in § 6 and 7). The final *h*, as will be explained in the next section, is now entirely mute.—(In the provincial pronunciation of Upper Germany it is yet pronounced with its old guttural sound.) *W*, on the other hand, has altogether disappeared from the end of roots, *f* having usurped its place: as, *Welf*, genitive *Wolfs*.

W, as its German name indicates, is pronounced like *f*: *Bogel*, *bird*; *vor*, *before*—like *Vogel*, *for*.

W nearly like the English *v*, but rather softer; the upper teeth must hardly touch the under lips, letting the air pass freely between them, without any obstruction; as, *Wein*, *wine*; *Wann*, *when*.

§ 6. PALATICKS: *c*, *ch*, *chs*, *g*, *ng*, *f*, *cf*, *h*, *j*, *qu*, *r*.

C has two sounds: viz.

1.) That of *k*, if it stands before *a*, *o*, *u*, *au*, or before a consonant; as, *Cato*, *Contract*, *Seneca*, *Clicnt*‡, &c.—or when it ends a syllable; as in *Director*.

* The student will perceive in this the illustration of the English practice, of changing, in the plural of substantives, the final *f* of the singular into *v*; as, for instance, *wolf*, *wife*, *thief*; plural *wolves*, *wives*, *thieves*.

† A pure example of this is yet left in the language, in the word *hoch*, *high*; of which the *ch* becomes *h*, if a vowel of inflexion is added: as, *der hohe*, *the high*; *höher*, *higher*.

‡ Those words which are not translated, are the same in English.

2.) That of *ts*, or the German *z*, in all other cases; as in *Cölius*, *Cicero*, *Citrone*; pronounced, *Tsölius*, *Tsitsero*, *Tsitronc*.

Obs. 1. It occurs only in words derived from foreign languages. In those taken from the French it has, before *e* and *i*, the sound of *s* (see § 10).

Ch has two sounds,—a guttural and a palatick sound; neither of which is found in English.

1.) The guttural sound is like *ch* in the Scotch word *Loch*. Its description is difficult: it is a strong aspiration obstructed by an approximation of the tongue to the back part of the roof of the mouth, but without closely touching it; as this would produce an admixture of the *k* sound.

Ch has always this sound if preceded by *a*, *o*, *u*, *au*; as, *Bach*, *rivulet*; *Loch*, *hole*; *Buch*, *book*; *auch*, *also*.

2.) The palatick sound is the same as that which the Scotch give to *ch* and *gh* in the words *fecht*, *light*, &c. It is produced by bringing the middle of the tongue near, but not quite close to, the roof of the mouth, and forcing the breath through the narrow passage thus formed; care being taken that no admixture of *sh* takes place by bringing the tongue too near the teeth.

Ch is pronounced with this sound whenever it is not immediately preceded by the above-mentioned vowels, *a*, *e*, *i*, and *au*; as in *nich*, *me*; *recht*, *right*; *reich*, *rich*; *Fächer*, *fan*; *Bücher*, *books*; *Mädchen*, *girl*.

Ch at the beginning of words, (where, with the exception of the four first words of the following examples, it occurs only in words of foreign origin,) sounds like *k*, if it is followed by *a*, *e*, *i*, or *r*; as in *Chur*, *choice*; *Churfürst*, *elector*; *Charwoche*, *Passion-week*; *Charfreitag*, *Good Friday*; *Chor*, *chorus*; *Character*; *Christ*, *Christian*, &c. In other cases it has its palatick sound; as, *Chymie*, *chymistry*; *Chirurgus*, *surgeon*; *China*, &c.

Obs. 2. In words originally French, *ch* has invariably the sound of the English *sh* (see § 10).

Chs is pronounced like *x*, if the *s* belongs to the same

root; or, in other words, *ch* before a radical *s*, (§ 12) of the same word is pronounced like *k*; as in *sechſ*, *six*; *wachſen*, *to grow*; *Dachſ*, *badger*; *Laſch*, *salmon*, &c.—which are pronounced *ſeſſ*, *waſſen*, *Daſſ*, *Laſſ*. But if the part of the word preceding *s* forms a word of itself, and the *s* is merely a servile letter, or belongs to another word with which the former is compounded, or contracted, *ch* has its usual sound; as, *deſ Dachſ*, *of the roof*; *Reichſgraf*, *count of the empire*; *höchſt*, *highest*; *nächſt*, *next*; *wachſam*, *watchful*; *durchſ* (contracted from *durch daſ*), *through the*.

G has the hard sound of the English *g* in *give*; as, *Gold*, *gold*; *Glaſ*, *glass*; *gegeben*, *given*.

At the end of words, or after the vowel of its syllable, it is pronounced by some like *f*—(in the same manner as the final *b* is sounded like *p*, and the final *d* like *t*: compare Obs. in the last section.) More generally, however, the final *g* is pronounced like *ch* in either of its sounds (only somewhat softer), according to the vowels by which it is preceded, as described in the foregoing page; as, *Tag*, *day*; *ewig*, *eternal*; *Weg*, *way*—which are pronounced like *Tach*, *ewich*, *Wech*. But when by inflexion a vowel is annexed, as *deſ Tageſ*, *of the day*; *der Ewig*, *the eternal*, *g* ought to resume its usual hard sound. Yet, even then, it is pronounced by many Germans with the sound of *ch*; and is found in poetry to rhyme with final syllables whose consonant is *ch**.

Obs. 3. Some of our best grammarians are of opinion, that, as usage varies in the pronunciation of the final *g*, it ought to retain its more general sound and therefore be pronounced at the end as at the beginning of a word; except where followed by *f* or *g*; as in *Fähigkeit*, *ability*; *weggehen*, *to go away*; in which case it must be pronounced like *ch*, as it otherwise could not so well be heard. The learner can therefore make no palpable mistake by pronouncing the final *g* in German as in English: yet, it must be repeated, this is not the common usage, particularly if it is preceded by a vowel.

* *Ich neige*
Du Schmerzensreiche.—Göthe.

ng should be pronounced with a nasal sound, exactly as in English : ex. *King, ring* ; *Gefang, song* ; *Hoffnung, hope*.

Obs. 4. The g in these cases has an imperfect sound in both languages, which it retains in German even if followed by a vowel ; thus *fangen, to catch* ; *länger, longer*, are read like *fang-en, läng-er* ; and *Finger, finger*, rhymes exactly with the English *singer*.

Obs. 5. If, in compounds, n and g belong to different roots, it is hardly necessary to mention that they do not form a nasal sound, but each is pronounced separately with its usual sound ; as in *angehen, to begin* ; *Unglück, misfortune* : read, *an-gehen, Un-gluck*.

Obs. 6. In Upper and Lower Saxony, and in some other provinces, ng at the end of a word is pronounced like *nk*. In other parts, particularly in the south of Germany, it is pronounced as described above : usage being divided, this latter pronunciation has been adopted by some grammarians as more consonant with analogy ; and it is also preferable for the sake of distinction ; as many words of different import, that are distinguished in spelling merely by the final *g* and *k*, would by the former pronunciation have no distinction whatever in sound : thus *schlang, devoured*, would sound like *schlang, slender* ; *rang, rang*, like *Rant, trick* ; *fing, caught*, like *Fink, finch* ; *schwang, swung*, like *Schwank, jest* ; *sang, sung*, like *sant, sunk*.

k and ck are pronounced as in English ; as, *dancken, to thank* ; *kam, came* ; *Sack, sack*.—k before n is not mute in German ; thus in *Knie, knee*, both *k* and *n* are sounded.

h at the beginning of the radical syllable is always aspirated ; as, *Hand, hand* ; *Haus, house* ; *behandeln, to treat* ; *gehört, heard*. But after the vowel of the syllable to which it belongs, it is mute, and serves merely to lengthen the preceding vowel ; as, *Schuh, shoe* ; *sah, saw* ; *lahm, lame* ; *hohl, hollow* ; &c. (see § 13).

If the final h is followed by a vowel of inflexion or derivation—as in *gehen, to go* ; *Schuhe, shoes* ; *viehisch, beastly*—grammarians say it should be slightly aspirated ; but this is far from being generally observed.

h in *rh* and *th* is not pronounced ; as in *Rheide, road* ; *That, deed*.

j before a vowel has the consonant sound of the En-

glish *y* (as in *yes* or *you*); as, ja, *yes*; Jahr, *year*; jetzt, *now*.

Ų is found only in association with *u*, as in English, and pronounced like *fw*; as in Quelle, *well*; quälen, *to torment*.

Æ is pronounced as the English *x*: Here, *witch*; Maximilian, *a proper name*.

§ 7. LINGUALS: ð, t, th, ʒ, ʃ, f or s, sp, st, ʃt, sch.

Ð has the same sound as in English; but at the end of words it is pronounced like *t*; thus und, *and*; Brod, *bread*, sound like unt, Brot (compare Obs. in § 5).

Œ sounds like the English *t*; but before *i*, followed by another vowel, it sounds like *ts*, or like the German ʒ; thus Nation, *nation*; Dalmatien, *Dalmatia*, are pronounced Natſion, Dalmatſien.

Th sounds merely like *t* (the sound of the English *th* does not exist in German); thus, That, *act*; Theater, *theatre*; roth, *red*, are pronounced Tat, Tater, rot. The þ in this case, has, however, in words originally German, the effect of lengthening the vowel of the syllable (compare § 13).

ʒ and ʃ are both pronounced like *ts*; thus Zinn, *tin*; Reiz, *charm*; Sitz, *seat*, are pronounced Tſin, Reits, Sits.

ſ at the beginning of words, or between two vowels, is pronounced softer than the English *s*, though not quite as soft as the English *z*; as in ſagen, *to say*; ſoll, *shall*; weiſe, *wise*; Haſe, *hare*. But if it is preceded by a consonant, as in Erbe, *pea*; Räthſel, *riddle*;—or if it is doubled, as in Waſſer, *water*; Roſſe, *horses*;—it is pronounced with the hard sound of the English *s* or the German ʃ. The final ʒ, (for this character is used only at the end of words or syllables,) as in Hauſ, *house*; deſ Hauſeſ, *of the house*; Weiſheit, *wisdom*, is generally pronounced also with the hard sound of the English *s*; but several of our present grammar-

rians disapprove of it, asserting, that the final *š*, if preceded by a vowel, should have the soft sound, as at the beginning of a word.

Sp and St. The *š* in these letters is, at the beginning of roots, pronounced like *sh* or the German *sch* (explained in the next page); thus *springen*, to *spring*; *stellen*, to *place*; *entstellen*, to *disfigure*; *Gestalt*, *figure*, are pronounced *shpringen*, *shtellen*, *entshtellen*, *geshtalt* *. But whenever *sp* or *st* occur after a vowel in the same syllable, or if *st* are letters of inflexion (see § 12), as in *beste*, *best*; *Wespe*, *wasp*; *Fürst*, *prince*; *höchstens*, at the utmost, they are pronounced as in English.

Obs. 1. In the words *Esclave* or *Eclave*, *slave*; *Skelett*, *skeleton*; *Esstze*, *sketch*; and *Smaragd*, *emerald*, the *š* is also very frequently pronounced like the English *sh*.

Obs. 2. Many Germans pronounce also the final *st* of the root, if preceded by *r*—as in *Bürste*, *brush*; *Fürst*, *prince*—like *sht*: but this pronunciation, although adopted by some grammarians, is now rejected by the best usage. But a still more decided provincialism is the pronunciation of *š* like *sh* in the final *sp* or *st*, if it is not preceded by *r*; as in *beste*, *best*; *Wespe*, *Wasp*—a pronunciation which prevails in some southern parts of Germany.

On the other hand, in Westphalia and in some parts of Lower Saxony, *š* in *sp* and *st*, whether at the beginning or at the end of a word, is pronounced with its usual hissing sound; a mode which is strongly recommended by several writers, as more consistent with orthography, and as being softer.

But as it is not the province of a work like the present to propose grammatical laws, but merely to record those existing, it may be sufficient to observe, that orthography can be appealed to only where usage is uncertain: but this is not the case in the present instance. In all Germany, in good society as well as on the stage, with the, comparatively speaking, inconsiderable exception of the places just referred to, *š* before *p* and *t*, at the beginning of words, is pronounced like *sh*, as described above; which must therefore be considered the more legitimate pronunciation. It is likewise deemed so by most of our grammarians. Klopstock the poet, who has written some grammatical essays, even proposed to write *sch* instead of *š* in the cases alluded to, *

* Elegant speakers appear to soften this sound into the English *zh*, or *z* in *pleasure*, and pronounce *zhpringen*, *zhtellen*, &c.

well knowing that orthography is but subservient to the general pronunciation: and it has been well observed by Adelung, that, if any local peculiarity, which happens to be supported by orthography, is to be preferred to general usage, the Westphalian pronunciation of *sch*, in which *f* and *ch* are both distinctly heard, and the Austrian and Bavarian pronunciation of *ie*—of which they make a diphthong consisting of the sounds of *i* and *e*—ought likewise to be adopted, in preference to the general usage of all the other parts of Germany.—See also Introduction, page 4, and § 26, obs. 2.

ß has always the sound of the English *s* in *so*; ex. *weiß*, *white*; *Größe*, *greatness*.

Sch has the sound of the English *sh*; as *Schande*, *shame*; *Busch*, *bush*—pronounced *Shande*, *Bush*. Yet it must be observed, that the Germans form this sound nearer the gums than the English do, and more with the tip of the tongue; which gives it, if I am not mistaken, a shade of difference.

Obs. 3. If a radical final *s* is followed by *ch* of a servile syllable, and, consequently, *s* and *ch* belong to two different syllables,—as is always the case in diminutives formed by the annex *chen*, from substantives ending in *s*,—each retains its usual sound; namely, *s* its hissing, and *ch* its palatick sound: and *sch* must therefore not be mistaken for *sch*, which latter always represents the sound of the English *sh*; ex. *Gläschen*, *a little glass*; *Häuschen*, *a little house*; (from *Glas*, *Haus*)—read, *Gläs:chen*, *Häus:chen*.

§ 8. LIQUIDS: *l*, *m*, *n*, *r*.

These letters are all pronounced as in English, except *r*; which, both at the beginning and at the end of words, is pronounced, as in other continental languages, with a strong vibration of the tip of the tongue, and sounds rather rougher than the English *r*, which is formed with the middle of the tongue.

The following table, by showing how the English sounds are represented by German letters, will at once recapitulate the preceding rules, and impress still more on the learner the power of the German letters.

The English		The German	
<i>a</i> in <i>bare</i>	is represented by	ä or e thus <i>bär</i> or <i>ber</i>
<i>a</i> — <i>alc</i> (see note p. 9)		ee or eh eel or ehl
<i>a</i> — <i>far</i>	a far
<i>a</i> — <i>all</i>	— —
<i>a</i> — <i>at</i>	— —
<i>e</i> — <i>mere</i>	i or ie mir or mier
<i>e</i> * — <i>met</i>	e mett
<i>i</i> — <i>fine</i>	ei or eh fein
<i>i</i> † — <i>fill</i>	i fill
<i>o</i> — <i>hole</i>	o hohl
<i>o</i> — <i>for</i>	o fer
<i>o</i> — <i>do</i>	u du
<i>u</i> ‡ — <i>bull</i>	u bull
<i>u</i> — <i>uniform</i>	ju juniform
<i>u</i> — <i>hut</i>	— —
<i>oi</i> — <i>oil</i> nearly by äü äul
<i>ou</i> — <i>out</i> nearly by au aut

The consonant sounds are, for the greatest part, represented by the same characters in both languages; except the following:

The English	is represented in German by	The English	is represented in German by
soft <i>ch</i>	tʃ	<i>th</i> in <i>think</i> } —
<i>j</i> and the } —	and <i>th</i> in <i>that</i> } —
soft <i>g</i> } —	<i>v</i>	nearly by w
<i>f</i>	f or v	<i>w</i> —
<i>s</i>	ß	<i>x</i>	r or chs
<i>sh</i>	ʃ	<i>y</i> in <i>yes</i>	i (ieß)
		<i>z</i> —

From this it will be seen, that there are three English vowel and five consonant sounds which do not exist in German: on the other hand, the German sounds *ö*, *ii*, and both sounds of the *ch*, do not exist in English.

* The corresponding short sound of *a* in *bare*.

† The corresponding short sound of *e* in *mere*.

‡ The corresponding short sound of *o* in *do*.

PRONUNCIATION OF FOREIGN WORDS.

§ 9. 1. Proper names and other words derived from languages little known, such as the Oriental languages, as well as all Scriptural names, —as, Jacob, Jsaak, Jordan, Algebra, Almanach, Moschee, *mosque*; der Euphrat, *the Euphrates*, &c.—are all pronounced according to the German mode: that is, the letters have the same power as in German words.

2. Words and names derived from the learned languages are, likewise, generally pronounced according to the German mode, and according to the rules laid down under the letters c, ch, t and y: ex. Scholastiker, Schismatiker, Mythologie, Auspicien, Achilles, Julius Cæsar—pronounced *Scholastiker*, &c.

Obs. Y in words derived from the Greek, as *ἔνθε*, *syllable*, *ῥησις*, should, according to some grammarians, be pronounced like ü, this being its original pronunciation in Greek. But the more general practice is to pronounce it every where like a German i.

3. Names and words expressive of things peculiar to a nation or place, taken from modern European languages, should retain their original pronunciation: thus the English words, Shakespeare, Howe, Cambridge, Lady, Lord-Mayor, Gentleman, &c.—the French, Rousseau, Richelieu, Chatillon, Sens d'armes, &c.—the Italian, Boccaccio, Chioggia, Cicisbeo, Cicerone, &c.—and so also names of other nations, ought to be pronounced as they are in their respective languages. But it may easily be supposed that this rule cannot always be strictly observed, particularly with respect to such languages as are less generally known.

Those few names of foreign places that have undergone in German a change in their orthography, are, of course, pronounced like German words; as, die Themse (the Thames), Lissabon (Lisboa), Mailand (Milano), Neapel (Napoli), Moskau (Moskwa), Kopenhagen (Kiöbenhavn).

§ 10. The words borrowed from the French being rather numerous and in frequent use in German, both in writing and conversation, and many of them having been more or less germanized, their pronunciation requires some more detailed explanation.

1. The vowels are generally pronounced as in French: namely, 1) ai and ei like ä; as, Portrait; Bouteille, *bottle*. 2) eu like ö; as, Deserteur, *deserter*; Gouverneur, *governor*—except Lieutenant, which is pronounced Leutnant. 3) au and eau like o; as, Chaussée, *causeway*; Bureau, *office*. 4) ou like u; as, Tambour, *drummer*. 5) oi nearly like oa; as, Chamais. 6) u like ü; as, Revue, *review*. 7) The termination *-ier* retains in the words Chevalier; Douanier, *custom-house-officer*; Banquier, *banker*; Metier, *profession*; Banqueroutier, *bankrupt*,

and perhaps in a few other words, its original pronunciation—namely, like the English word *yea*: but in most others it is pronounced in German like the English *eer*; as, *Officier*, *Courier*, *Grenadier*, &c. &c.

2. The consonants, too, have nearly the same power as in French: consequently, we pronounce 1.) *ç*, and *c* before *e* or *i*, like *s*; as, *Çaçon*, *shape*; *Actrice*, *actress*; *Farce*; *Glaciş*. 2.) *ch* like the English *sh*; as, *Chicane*, *chicanery*; *Charlatan*, *empyric*. 3.) *j*, and *g* before *e* or *i*, like the English *s* in *pleasure*; as, *Jalousien*, *venetian blinds*; *Journal*; *Page*; *Bagage*; *Orange*; *Genie*, *genius*; *engagiren*, *to engage*, &c. 4.) *qu* like *k*; as, *Marqueur*, *marker*; *Etiquette*; *Marquis*; &c. 5.) *ll* preceded by *i* (in French *l mouillé*) is generally pronounced like the German *lj*; as, *Bataillon*, *battalion*; *Medaille*, *medal*; *Billet*. 6.) *gn* like the German *nj*; as, *Compagnon*, *companion*; *Champagner*, *champaigne*; &c. Except *Compagnie*, *company*, which is pronounced *Companee*.

3. The French nasal sounds are also generally retained in German; as, *Bassin*, *basin*; *Cousin*; *Diligence*; *Bombardement*; *Detachement*. Except *Compliment* and the termination *ant*, which are pronounced as in German words; as, *galant*; *charmant*, *charming*; *interessant*, *interesting*.

4. Most final letters which are mute in French remain so in German; as, *Depot*; *Sakot*, *frill*; *Diner*, *dinner*; *Souper*, *supper*; *Commis*, *clerk*; *Logis*, *lodging*; *Corps*. Except 1.) The terminations *at*, *et* and *rd*, which are all sounded in German; as, *Soldat*, *soldier*; *Cabinet*; *Billard*, *billiards*; *Accord*, *an agreement*. 2.) The above-named terminations *ier* and *ant*; as, *Officier* and *charmant*. 3.) The final *e*, which is also generally sounded; as, *Page*; *Cousine*, *female cousin*; *Parade*; &c.

5. If the expression consists of more than one word; as, *Rendez-vous*, *Te-te-a-tete*, *Viş-a-viş*, *Paş-de-deux*, &c. it must always be pronounced exactly as in French.

6. Those foreign words in German that exist both in Latin and French with no other change than the omission of the Latin termination, are pronounced, like other Latin words, in the German mode, even if used in a new and unclassical acceptation; as, *ein General*, *a general*; *ein Major*, *a major*; *ein Regiment*, *a regiment*, &c.

§ 11. In foreign words, the original division of syllables must be retained: thus, *reussiren*, *to succeed*; *reell*, *real*; *reinstatiren*; *Ruin*; *Jesuit*, are read *re-ussiren*, *re-ell*, *re-insta-tiren*, *ru-in*, &c. It must therefore be observed:

1. The terminations *-ie*, *-ien*, *-ier*, *-uen*, and *-een*, of foreign

words, which are germanized from the dissyllable Latin terminations *-ia*, *-iæ*, *-ii*, *-ea*, *-ua*, form two syllables (with the accent on the antepenultimate, except *-cen*, which has the accent on the penultimate): ex. *Familie*, *family*; *Grazie*, *grace*; *Historie*, *history*; *Materie*, *matter*; *Bestie*, *beast*; *Glorie*, *glory*; *Hostie*, *the host*; *Mumie*, *mummy*; *Studien*, *studies*; *Ferien*, *vacation*; *Gymnasien*, *gymnasiums*; *Naturalien*, *natural curiosities*; *Genien*, *genii*; *Patrizier*, *patrician*; *Individuen*, *individuals*; *Lyceen*, *lyceums*; *Mausoleen*, *mausoleums*—read, *Fami'li-e*, *Gra'zi-e*, &c. being derived from the Latin words *familia*, *materia*, *studia*, *genii*, *feriæ*, &c. &c.

2. But if the words ending in *ie* exist also in the French language with that termination, these vowels form but one accented syllable, as in French; probably because they came through the medium of that language into the German; as, *Philosophi'e*, *Theologi'e*, *Theori'e*, &c. In the plural, the termination *-ien* forms always two syllables; as, *Theori'en*:—compare § 23. In a few words, however, usage varies between this and the preceding mode; as, *Romödi'e*, *Ceremoni'e*; or, *Romö'di-e*, *Ceremo'ni-e*. The last word is, in the compound *Ceremonienmeister*, *master of ceremonies*, always pronounced *Ceremo'ni-en*.

3. The terminations *-ien* in the names of countries, and *-ier* in those of their inhabitants, are also dissyllables; as, *Spanien*, *Spain*; *Italien*, *Italy*; *Asien*, *Asia*; *Schlesien*, *Silesia*; *Britannien*, *Britain*; *Spanier*, *Spaniard*; *Schlesier*, *Silesian*, *Lacedemonier*, *Lacedemonian*, &c.—read, *Spa'ni-en*, &c.

§ 12. ETYMOLOGICAL CLASSIFICATION OF SYLLABLES.

Before we proceed to quantity and accent, it will be expedient first to explain the nature of what are called the radical and servile syllables,—a distinction which is applicable to the syllables of every simple word of more than one syllable, and to which allusion has been already made in the preceding pages.

1. The root or radical syllable (for it consists always of one syllable,) does not mean here the primitive word, or the parent of derivatives, but that syllable which contains the principal import of the word, or denotes a clear meaning of itself. Thus the first syllables of *writing*, *written*, *writer*, are roots, because they all, although each with a different modification, import the fundamental idea of expressing notions by means of letters. Also all monosyllables, as *see*, *flee*, *high*, *sight*, *height*, must, in opposition to servile syllables, be considered as roots or radical syllables.

2. Servile syllables we shall call all those which have no clear import of themselves, but merely serve to modify the root. Thus the second syllables in *writing* and *writer* express mere accidents of the root or principal idea, and are therefore servile syllables.

The terms *radical* and *servile* are also applied to letters; namely, those which belong to the root of a word are called radical, and the remainder, servile letters.

3. The servile syllables may be subdivided, according as they are prefixed or annexed to the root, into prefixes and annexes (or suffixes). In *bespoken*, for instance, *be* is the prefix, *en* the annex, and *spok* the root. The prefixes in German are *be*, *emp*, *ent*, *er*, *ge*, *ver* and *zer*.

The principal annexes are *bar*, *chen*, *de*, *e*, *ei* (or *ey*), *el*, *eln*, *em*, *en*, *end*, *er*, *ern*, *eß*, *est*, *et*, *haft*, *heit*, *ich*, *icht*, *ig*, *ing*, *isch*, *feit*, *lei* (or *ley*), *lein*, *lich*, *ling*, *niß*, *sal*, *sam*, *schaft*, *sel*, *te*, *thum*, *ung*, *zig*.

4. Another subdivision of servile syllables may be made into syllables of inflexion,—that is, such as are added to words in their declension, or conjugation, to express number, person, time, or other accidents;—and into syllables of derivation,—that is, such by which words are formed from others. Thus the second syllables in the words *glasses*, *wanted*, *richer*, are syllables of inflexion; but the second syllables in *writer*, *friendship*, *lovely*, are syllables of derivation.

In the preceding list of servile syllables, the prefix *ge* and the annexes *e*, *em*, *en*, *end*, *er*, *es*, *est*, *et*, serve also as syllables of inflexion.

5. Each simple word * has a root; it may have many annexes, but can have no more than one prefix: consequently, the root is always the first syllable if the word has no prefix, and the second, if it has one.

Obs. 1. In a few words beginning with *be*, *er*, *ge*, &c.; as in *teten*, *to pray*; *geben*, *to give*; *erben*, *to inherit*; *Erde*, *earth*; *Besen*, *broom*; *die Gegend*, *the country or neighbourhood*; *gestern*, *yesterday*, &c. these syllables are not prefixes, but belong to the root (and have therefore the accent, see § 15); which may always be known from the circumstance, that the second syllable in such words, with the exception of the two last examples, always terminates, if not declined or conjugated, in a single *e*, or in *en*;—terminations in which no root ends but the words *wen*, *whom*, and *den*, *the*: and, therefore, as the second syllable is not the root, the first must be so, according to the preceding rule.

Obs. 2. A servile vowel occurring before or after a radical vowel, must, in the pronunciation, not be joined with the latter into one syllable: thus *beurtheilen*, *to judge*; *beehren*, *to honour*; *geirret*, *mistaken*; *geerbt*, *inherited*; *sie schrien*, *they cried*; *des Sees*, *of the lake*, must be read *be-urthei-len*, *be-eh-ren*, *ge-ir-ret*, *ge-erb-t*, *schri-en*, *Se-es*. (Compare § 23, remark 2.)

Obs. 3. It may not be improper to notice here, that if a word is to be divided into syllables (for instance, at the end of a line), the prefix is separated from the root, but not always the annex; for if the latter begins with a vowel, the radical consonant that immediately precedes it, is joined to it; as, *be-ten*, *Spra-che*, *ra-ten*, *kämp-fen*, *Deut-scher*. Compounds, however, must always be divided according to their component parts; as, *Wund-arzt*, *surgeon*; *See-gras*, *sea-weed*.

* The expression *simple word* is used in contradistinction to *compound*; and may be either a primitive, as *man*, *hate*; or a derivative, as *manly*, *manliness*, *hater*. A compound consists of two or more words, each separately current in the language; as, *manhater*, *gentlemanly*; or, at least, having in its present use a clear and distinct import of itself. This latter is the case with the inseparable particles *ur*, *primitive*; *er*, *arch*; *miß*, *mis*; and the privative particle *un*, *un*, which, having a clear import of themselves, are all roots, and therefore distinguished from the mere prefixes *be*, *ent*, &c. although they are found only in compounds. The simples of which a compound consists, retain in the composition the nature of their syllables; thus the first and last syllables of *Morgengebet*, *morning-prayer*, are roots, and the second and third, servile syllables; because the word is compounded of *Morgen*, which consists of a root and an annex, and *Gebet*, which consists of a prefix and a root.

VOWEL QUANTITY.

A vowel sound may be relatively long or short;—that is, the voice rests either longer upon it, and thus protracts it, or hastens quickly over to the next letter: thus the vowels in the English words, *car*, *feel*, *fool*, are long; and those in *carry*, *fill*, *full*, are their corresponding short vowels. And so in the German words, *lahm*, *lame*; *her*, *hither*; *Ofen*, *oven*; *föhlen*, *to feel*, the quantity of the radical vowels is long; but *Lamm*, *lamb*; *Herr*, *master*; *offen*, *open*; *füllen*, *to fill*, have short vowels.

From these examples, which might be multiplied very considerably, it may also be seen that many words, otherwise alike in their pronunciation, are distinguished merely by the quantities of their vowels.

Each vowel sound is used with either quantity;—*i. e.* in some words it is long, in others short; except the first sounds of *o* and *e*, which are always of long quantities; and which, it would appear, cannot be pronounced purely without being somewhat protracted.

Obs. The learner will perceive that the question is here merely of vowel, and not of syllabic, nor of metrical, quantity. A syllable may be long merely by the multiplicity of its consonants, although its vowel be short. Thus *swift* and *wealth*, in which the vowel sounds are short, require as much time to pronounce as *sweet* and *wall*, which have long vowel sounds. *Metrical* quantity depends, in German, chiefly on the emphasis or importance of the syllable, as will be explained at the end of the work.

§ 13. Of long quantity are:—

1.) The vowels *aa*, *ee*, *oo* and *ie*, (see page 12,) and all vowels that are followed by *h* or *th* in the same syllable, or are preceded by *th* in the same syllable; as, *Waare*, *goods*, *ware*; *Seele*, *soul*; *Schooß*, *lap*; *Riese*, *giant*; *lahm*, *lame*; *sehr*, *very*; *ihn*, *him*; *Ohr*, *ear*; *Uhr*, *watch*; *Höhle*, *cavern*; *fühl*, *cool*; *thun*, *to do*; *Thür*, *door*; *roth*, *red*.

2.) The vowels that are at the end of a syllable, or are

followed by a single consonant in the same syllable; as, *du, thou; wo, where; wen, whom; Rose, rose; Schaden, damage; schön, beautiful*; in which the radical vowels are all long.

Except. a.) The following particles and pronouns, the vowels of which are all short: *ab, off; an, to; am, at the; tin, (I) am; bis, until; das, the; des, of the; es, it; hat, has; in, in; im, in the; man, one; mit, with; um, about; von, of; vom, of the; weg, away* (but in the substantive *der Weg, the way*, *e* is long); *wider, against; was, what; zum and zur, to the.*

b.) The following few compounds, in which the first syllable is short: *Herzog, duke; Herberge, shelter, habitation; Urtheil, judgment; Vertheil, advantage; vielleicht, perhaps*; and probably a few others.

c.) The vowels *e* and *i* in syllables of inflexion, which are all short, although not followed by a double consonant; as, *beschreibt (he) describes; geduldig, patient; vergeben, to pardon.*

§ 14. Of short quantity are:—

1.) All vowels without exception that are followed by a double consonant; as, *wenn, if; Kasse, horses; hoffen, to hope; Schatz, treasure; Ecke, corner.* (Compare § 24, rule 2.)

2.) Also the vowels that are followed by two or more different consonants in the same syllable; as, *recht, right; Geduld, patience; kosten, to cost; Kunst, art; Wachs, wax; Here, witch* (*x* being considered a double consonant).

Except the following words, the radical vowels of which are all long, although followed by two consonants; *Adler, eagle; Art, manner; Bars or Barsch, perch (a fish); Bart, beard; Börse, exchange; Bord, board; Bratsche, tenor-violin; Erde, earth; erst, first; Ferse, heel; Geburt, birth; Harz, rosin; Herd, hearth; Herde, flock; Husten, cough; Kloster, convent; Krebs, crab; Krebs (only found in compounds); Magd, maid; Mond, moon; Mörser, mortar; nebst, besides; Obst, fruit; Ostern, Easter; Pferd, horse; rösten, to roast; Schuster, shoemaker; Schwarte, sward; Schwert, sword; stets, continually; todt, dead; Trost, consolation; Vogt, governor; Warze, wart; Wüste, desert; zart, tender.*

Obs. 1. *Ch* and *sch*, although now representing simple sounds, mostly render their preceding vowels short; as in *frisch, impudent; Sache, thing*;

raſch, rash; Froſch, frog. Except *Buch, book; draſch, thrashed; fluchen, to curse; hoch, high* (but in *Hechzeit, wedding*, it is short); *Ruchen, cake; Schmach, disgrace; Sprache, language; ſuchen, to seek; Tuch, cloth; wuſch, washed.*—If *ß* does not stand for *ſs* (see § 24), it is a simple consonant, and the preceding vowel is therefore long; as in *Größe, greatness; Fuß, foot.*

Obs. 2. The long quantity of the radical vowel cannot be affected by a syncope: as, *gelobt, praised; er ſagt, he says; for gelobet, saget*—or by a consonant that belongs to the following annex; as, *Rädchen, a little wheel; Trübsal, affliction; in all which words the vowel remains long because in the root it is followed by one consonant only.*

§ 15. THE ACCENT, OR SYLLABIC EMPHASIS.

Every word of more than one syllable, has one of them always pronounced with more emphasis or stress than the rest; which syllabic emphasis is generally called the accent: thus the first syllable in *hármony*, the second in *har-mónious*, and the third in *over-áct*, are uttered with more stress, and are therefore said to have the accent.

The German follows the most simple and natural law in its accentuation; it lays the accent, in all words originally German, on the most important syllable, namely on the root; and in compounds, on the root of the first component part, that commanding most attention (compare § 19). Now, the root, as we have seen, (§ 12, rule 5,) being in German always the first syllable, except in words with prefixes, we can lay down the following simple rule, which comprehends by far the greatest part of the whole stock of the language, namely:

German words of more than one syllable without prefixes, have the accent on the first syllable; but those beginning with any of the seven prefixes, be, ent, emp, er, ge, ver, and zer, have it on the second syllable. (For the accent of words derived from foreign languages, see § 20, rules 1 and 2.)

Ex. líeben, to love; líeblich, lovely; líbenswürdig, amiable; Líbenswürdigkeit, amiableness; belíebt, beloved; ge'bet, give (from ge'ben, to give); Gebe't, prayer (from be'ten, to pray);

Ol'baum, olive tree; Bau'möl, olive oil; Beu'rtheilungskraft, the power of judging; sto'ckblind, stone blind.

In simple words there are no exceptions to this rule but the word *leb'ndig, alive* (from *le'ben, to live*), and some words with foreign terminations, which terminations take the accent, according to the tendency of foreign words to accentuate the last syllable (see § 20). These are

1.) Verbs terminating in *ieren* (or *iren*); as, *futsci'eren, to drive; haufi'eren, to hawk; halbi'eren, to halve; spazi'eren, to take a walk; buchstabi'eren, to spell; &c. &c.*

2.) Substantives with the termination *ei** (or *ey*); as, *Schmeichelei', flattery; Raserei', frenzy; Heuchelei', hypocrisy; &c. &c.*

3.) The following substantives: *Blumi'st, florist; Harfeni'st, harper; Mora'st, morass; Liefera'nt, contractor; Glasu'r, glazing; and the proper names Berli'n, Stetti'n, Küsti'n, and Hanno'ver.*

The compounds, however, present a considerable number of exceptions: viz. of words in which the accent does not rest on the first, but on the second component part. These exceptions may, most naturally and conveniently, be classed under the three principal parts of speech; namely, *nouns, verbs, and particles.*

§ 16. Of nouns, both substantives and adjectives, are excepted:

1. All compounds beginning with *all* or *aller*; as, *allmä'chtig, almighty; alltä'glich, daily; allmä'hlig, by degrees; allerli'ebst, charming; allerbe'st, best of all, &c.* But *W'ltmacht, omnipotence; and a'llgemein, universal*, have the accent on the first syllable.

2. Those adjectives compounded with *un* that acquire by their conjunction with this privative particle not merely a negative expression, but also a superior degree of energy and force; as, *ungemei'n, uncommon; ungeheu'er, enormous; unme'nschlich, exceeding human power, immense.* Of this description are chiefly adjectives terminating in *lich* or *bar*, derived from verbs, and denoting impossibility of that which the verb expresses. The accent in such adjectives is always put on the root of the verb; and even the separable particles *ab, aus, nach, &c.* lose in such adjectives the accent, which they invariably have in the compound

* Formerly the ending *ey* was used in foreign words instead of our present *ie*; as *Weloben, Whantafey, &c.*

verbs; ex. unnach'hmlich, *inimitable*; unausste'glich, *insupportable*; un'e'ndlich, *infinite*; unzä'h'bar, *innumerable*; unmö'glich, *impossible*; &c. But those that are not more emphatical than their simple adjectives, are accented regularly; as, u'ngezäh'lt, *uncounted*; u'nrecht, *wrong*; u'ngewiß, *uncertain*; u'nmens'lich, *inhuman* (not human).

3. Several titles arising from office, chiefly such in which the second component part either expresses a distinction from another similar title, or itself consists of a compound; as, General-Majo'r, *major-general*; General-Lieu'tenant, *lieutenant-general*; Oberst-Lieu'tenant, *lieutenant-colonel*; Oberstwa'chtmeister, *major*; Reichs'frei'herr, *baron of the empire*; Großschä'tzmeister, *grand treasurer*; Oberhofprediger, *the chief chaplain to a king*.

But if the second part neither expresses a distinction, nor is itself a compound, the accent is mostly on the first; as, Reich's-Baren, *baron of the empire*; Feldprediger, *field chaplain*.

Also adjectives beginning with hoch, wohl, or groß, have the accent on the second component part, if they are epithets of formal distinction and civility; as, wohl'e'bel, *noble*; hoch'a'delig, *of noble birth*; hochfü'r'lich, *most serene*; großmä'chtig, *most potent*. But if they are not of that description, the accent rests on the first component part; as, ho'chtrabend, *bombastic*; hoch'herzig, *noble-hearted*; gro'simü'tig, *generous*.

4. Compound names of holidays; as, O'stermo'ntag, *Easter-Monday*; Charfrei'tag, *Good-Friday*; Palmso'nntag, *Palm-Sunday*; Ascher'mittwoch, *Ash-Wednesday*; Frohnlei'chnam, *Corpus Christi*; Weihna'chten, *Christmas*; Neuja'hr, *New-year*.

Obs. 1. In compound names of places, the English accentuation may, in general, be followed in German; as, Westphä'len, *Westphalia*; Neu-ho'lland, *New Holland*; die Nie'derlande, *the Netherlands*.

5. The following compounds: abscheu'lich, *abominable*; außero'r'dentlich, *extraordinary*; barmh'e'rzig, *compassionate*; bestmö'glichst, *best possible*; die Dreie'nigkeit or Dreifa'l'tigkeit, *the Trinity*; Höhl'u'nder, *elder*; Jahrhu'ndert, *century*; Jahrze'hend, *a space of ten years*; Kajü'te, *cabin*; Karto'ffel, *potatoes*; leibha'ftig, *living*; Matrose, *sailor*; Nordo'st, *north-east*; Nordwe'st, *north-west*; überschwä'nglich, *superabundant*; uermä'ssig, *excessive*; unterthä'nig, *subject, humble*; vortre'fflich, *excellent*; wahrha'ftig, *true*; willko'mmen, *welcome* (but the substantive der Wi'llkommen, *the welcome*, and the verb bewi'llkommen, *to welcome*, have the accent regularly): and the pronouns dersel'be, *the same*; derje'nige, *that*, through their whole declension: dessel'ben, *of the same*; desje'nigen, *of that*; &c.

Obs. 2. Many Germans accent also several other adjectives irregularly; as, nothw'e'ndig, *necessary*; freiwi'llig, *voluntary*; &c.: but this is not so generally done as to warrant their being numbered among the exceptions.

Obs. 3. The substantives formed from adjectives retain the accentuation of the adjectives: Zufrie'denheit, *contentment*; Unausste'hlichkeit, *insupportableness*.

§ 17. Of compound verbs are excepted: a.) those beginning with the particles *durch*, *über*, *unter*, and *um*, if the particles are inseparable (see the Conjugation of Verbs); as, *unterha'ndeln*, to negotiate; *unterschei'den*, to discern; *überse'hen*, to overlook. b.) All those compounded with *hinter*, *voll*, and *wider*; as, *hinterge'hen*, to deceive; *vollzi'ehen*, to execute; *widerru'fen*, to revoke; *widerste'hen*, to resist. c.) The verbs *missfa'llen*, to displease; *missli'ngen*, to fail; *missra'then*, to miscarry; *missha'ndeln*, to ill-treat; *wiederho'ten*, to repeat; *scharmü'heln*, to skirmish.

Obs. All adjectives, and those substantives that end in *ung* or *er*, derived from these verbs, have the accent on the same syllable as the verb; as, *wideru'flich*, revocable; *Unterha'tung*, amusement; *Unterha'ndler*, negotiator. But all other substantives derived from the above verbs, remove the accent to the first syllable; as, *U'nterhalt*, maintenance; *U'nterschrift*, signature; *Wi'derstand*, resistance. Except *Vollzu'g*, fulfilment.

§ 18. Of Particles, or undeclinable words, are excepted:

All compound adverbs, conjunctions, and prepositions, that do not terminate in a servile *s* or *lich*; as, *heru'm*, about; *umhe'r*, around, about; *zuvor*, before; *vorbei*, by, over; *beis'a'mmen*, together; *gegenü'ber*, opposite; *mithi'n*, consequently; *hingeg'en*, on the contrary; *überau's*, extremely; *wobla'n*, well; *viellei'cht*, perhaps; *desha'lb* or *deswe'gen*, on that account; *nachde'm*, after; *demna'ch*, consequently; *anstatt*, instead; *gleichwi'l*, equally; *selb'a'nder*, with another; *selb-dri'tte*, with two others, &c.; *überhau'pt*, in general. But those that do terminate in *s* or *lich* are accented regularly; as, *e'benfalls*, likewise; *hi'nrich'tlich*, concerning; with the exception of those beginning with *all*, which, like the nouns so commencing (see § 16, rule 1.), accent the second component part: as, *allerseits*, on all sides; *allenfa'lls*, at any rate; &c.

The following compounds are also accented regularly: *au'ßerhalb*, without; *de'rgestalt*, in that manner; *e'hegestern* or *vo'rgestern*, the day before yesterday; *i'nnerehalb*, within; *i'rgendwo*, somewhere; *je'nseit*, the other side; *o'berhalb*, above; *u'termergen*, the day after to-morrow; *u'ngerne*, unwillingly; *u'nla'ngst*, not long since; *u'nterehalb*, below; *u'nwohl*, unwell; and perhaps a few others.

§ 19. REMARKS ON THE ACCENTUATION OF COMPOUNDS.

1. In most compounds the second component part expresses the fundamental, or rather the generic, idea, and the first part is superadded to qualify that generic idea, and may be called its attributive; for, in fact, it denotes only an attribute of the rest of the compound. Thus in *steam-boat*, *writing-machine*, *sky-blue*,—*boat*, *machine*, and *blue* are the generic ideas, defined and limited by the words *steam*, *writing*, and

sky; and the only difference between the import of the whole compound, and that of its second part, is the superaddition of the attribute. The first part being, then, the characteristic and distinguishing feature of the compound, it must naturally attract our principal attention, and consequently have the accent; as the particular end of German accentuation is, like that of emphasis in every language, to direct our attention to some particular word, or part of a word.

But there are some compounds of another kind, in which the first part is not a mere qualification or attribute of the second, but forms a part of the fundamental idea; both words being so blended as to denote one new idea, not always soluble into its component parts. In such compounds then, the first part being devoid of that artificial importance of a characteristic attribute, the accent falls naturally on the second as the concluding part of the idea. Of this latter description are most of the compound adverbs and of the other exceptions mentioned in the preceding sections. Hence the difference of accentuation in *Sil'dwind*, *south wind*; and *Süde'st*, *south east*; *u'nterhalten*, *to hold under*; *du'rchohren*, *to bore through*; that is, *to continue boring till the object is bored through*—where the particles *unter* and *durch* are mere abverbs, modifying the verbs *halten* and *hören*—and *unterha'lten*, *to amuse*; *durchbo'hren*, *to pierce*—in which the particles form with their verbs but one simple indivisible idea. In the same manner we may account for the irregular accentuation of the adjectives compounded with *un* (see § 16. *Exc.* 2.); for, the superadded degree of intensity implied by the compound cannot be imparted by the mere addition of the negative particle; which latter, therefore, not being the sole distinguishing feature of the compound, is not of sufficient importance to take the accent. Compare in § 16; *Exc.* 2, the examples, *unme'n'schlich*, *immense*; *unzä'hlar*, *innumerable*, with *u'nmen'schlich*, *inhuman*; *u'ngezählt*, *uncounted*, &c.

2. If compounds of general currency are again compounded with other words, the above observation will still hold good; and if the first part be a characteristic feature of the rest, it has the accent; as, *Ha'ndwörterbuch*, *manual-dictionary*; *Chnei'dwerfzeng*, *cutting-implements*; *Blei'bergwerk*, *lead-mines*; *Tu'chniederlage*, *cloth-warehouse*.

3. An unaccented syllable may, occasionally, receive a particular stress, arising from an antithesis, either expressed or understood, and which may therefore be called the *antithetical accent*; as, *er be'schuldigt und sie e'ntschuldigt*, *he accuses and she excuses*; *da'von ist die Rede nicht*, *of that there is no question* (implying, 'but of something else'); *was sagen Sie da'zu?* *what do you say to that?*

4. The learner must have already perceived the similarity that, in many points, exists between the German, and the Saxon words in the English language, with respect to their principles of accentuation. The

latter regularly accent the radical syllable: *spóken, bespéak, lóvely, lóveliness*. Compounds formed of words separately current in English have the accent on the first: *stóne-quarry, quárry-stone, áfternoon*. Even many of the above-mentioned exceptions are analogous to the English; for instance, *almíghty, new-yéar*: particularly several adverbs; as, *here-áfter, instéad, thereón, therebý, wherewíth, &c.*

§ 20. ACCENT OF FOREIGN WORDS.

1. Most foreign words, namely, all words taken from the French, and all those from the learned languages which have suffered some change in their terminations, have the accent on their last foreign syllable, whether the syllable belong to the root, or be a servile syllable; as, *Róma'n, romance, novel; Complímé'nt; Parlemé'nt, parliament; Májor; Philosó'ph; Poé't; Elepha'm; Epígra'm; Aprí'l; Februa'r; Sympto'm; Systé'm; systema'tisch, systematic; Ratió'n; nátiona'l; nationalis'tren, to naturalize; Drago'ner, dragon.*

Obs. 1. By the latter examples, the learner may perceive that German terminations annexed to foreign words do not receive the accent, but leave the preceding foreign syllable in possession of it. This applies even to the terminations *e, el*, er*, germanized from foreign terminations; as in *Thea'ter, Fa'bel, Dra'fel, Epi'sode, Hypothé'se*, from *theatrum, fabula, &c.*

The following are exceptions to the above general rule:

a.) Most substantives terminating in *if*, and all those terminating in *ifer*, have the accent on the syllable preceding these terminations; as, *Gramma'tif, Nota'nif, O'ptif, Diploma'tif, Rhetó'rif, Gymna'stif, &c. Gramma'tifer, Diploma'tifer, Mathema'tifer, Politi'ter, &c.*

Some substantives in *if*, however, are more generally accented on the last syllable; as, *Politi't, Kritis't, Republi't, Suppli't, Fabri't, Reli't*, and a few others. But even many of these are accented by some Germans on the penultimate.

b.) All those substantives ending in *ie*, in which this termination forms two short syllables (see § 11), have the accent on the antepenultimate: *Fami'lie, Stu'dien, Fe'rien, &c.*

* In words derived from the French, however, this termination has the accent; but then it is generally spelt in German *eit*; as, *Carte'it, Carousse'it, Bagate'it* (see § 24, rule 4).

2. But those words from the learned languages that have suffered no change in their terminations, retain their original accent; namely, either on the penultimate, or antepenultimate: *Enthusia'smus*, *Epi'ritus*, *Stu'dium*, *Kli'ma*, *Pu'blicum*, *inco'gnito*, *Era'men*, *Do'ctor*, *Profe'ssor*, *Dire'ctor*, *Chara'cter*, *Ca'non*, *Le'xikon*.

However, if a German termination is added to such words, they seem by that to lose this characteristic distinction, and the accent is removed to the last foreign syllable, according to the first rule; as, *Auto'ren*, *authors*; *Profe'sso'ren*, *professors*; *Charakte're*, *characters*; *cano'nisch*, *canonical*.

From the preceding rule are excepted:

Many substantives terminating in meter, which have the accent on the penultimate; as, *Barome'ter*, *Thermome'ter*, *Geome'ter*, *Hygrome'ter*, *Chronome'ter*. To this exception belong generally such words as are of common use, and which probably came into the language through the medium of the French. But those which in their use are more confined to the learned, have the accent on the antepenultimate: as, *Hexa'meter*, *Penta'meter*, *Dia'meter*, &c.

Obs. 2. The above rules respecting Latin and Greek words, are also applicable to most proper names of those languages: *Virgi'l*, *Hera'z*, *Terenz*, *Ovi'd*, *Martia'l*, *Homér*, *Mersu'r*, *Neptu'n*. But in *Cice'ro*, *Cæ'sar*, *Anto'nius*, *Pompe'jus*, *Demo'sthenes*, these words having undergone no change, the original accent remains.

Obs. 3. The few words from the Italian language (generally technical terms of art) retain, as in English, their Italian accentuation; as, *al fre'sco*, *pi'a'no*, *mezza ti'nta*, &c.

§ 21. SECONDARY ACCENT.

1. In words of more than two syllables there is mostly, besides the principal accent, another of less emphasis, which is called the secondary or inferior accent. Thus the last syllables in *general'ship*, *bro'therhood*, *friendli'ness*, have the secondary accent. In simple words, it would seem, this accent arises from a tendency of the voice to alternate stress and remission, so that accented and unaccented syllables would naturally relieve each other. Hence every second syllable from an accented one, if not differently influenced by quantity, (see the following,) has the secondary accent. Thus the last syllables in the words *Frei'sheit*, *liberty*; *Freund'schaft*, *friendsh'ip*; *Grä'sinn*, *countess*, may be said to be without any accent; but in the words *Gel'e'genhei't*, *oppo'rtunity*; *Brü'derscha'ft*,

brotherhood; *Kö'nigi'nn*, *queen*, they have the secondary accent,—which has still more stress if they are followed by unaccented syllables; as, *Sele'genhei'ten*, *Brü'ders'chaften*, *Kö'nigi'nnen*. Thus also, frequently, in foreign words; as, *Se'nera'l*, *Co'nfisto'rium*, *U'niversitä't*.

2. But this rule arising from rhythm, is strongly modified by the quantity of the syllables. Those of long quantity (that is, such syllables over which the voice cannot hasten quickly, either from the long vowel quantity, or from the number of consonants; as, *heit*, *sam*, *bar*, *thum*, *schaft*, *nist*, *icht*, *ling*, &c.) tend peculiarly to accent; those of short quantity are averse to it. Hence the servile syllables *ig* and *lich* have very seldom any accent; and those that have *e* for their vowel, as *e*, *er*, *es*, *el*, *em*, *en*, *et*, are entirely incapable of it, the voice hastening too rapidly over them. If, therefore, the syllables after the principal accent are of unequal quantity, the longer attracts the secondary accent wherever it may stand; as, *Fei'ertlich'keit*, *solemnity*; *Freu'nd'schaften*, *friendships*; *ar'beitete*, *worked*.

3. The syllable next to the principal accent is less susceptible of stress than those further removed; unless it be followed by two short syllables, when it receives more stress to support the voice in the enunciation of the following: thus the second syllable in *arbeitete* has less stress than the second in *arbeitete*.

4. If the syllables following that of the principal accent are all short, the word is without any secondary accent; as, *Kö'nige*, *kings*; *ver'theidi'gen*, *to defend*; *jäh'rliche*, *yearly*; *bi'tterere*, *more bitter ones*. The syllables *ig* and *lich*, however, if separated from the principal accent by a short syllable, and not followed by a long one, receive some accent; as, *feu'eri'g*, *fery*; *kai'serli'cher*, *imperial*.

5. In polysyllabic compounds, all the radical syllables that have not the principal accent have the secondary accent; as, *au'f'e's'sen*, *to eat up*; *Ma'ule'sel*, *mule*; *Schnei'derge'sell*, *journeyman tailor*.

ORTHOGRAPHY.

As a foreign language is acquired by reading and the dictionary rather than by conversation, and the eye of the student thus becomes familiarized with its orthography, the following few rules and observations on the subject of German orthography will be found sufficient. It may, however, be proper to advise the learner to follow, in matters of orthography, rather the generality of writers, or his dictionary, than the peculiarities of any particular author, however valuable he may be in other respects.

§ 22. OF CAPITAL LETTERS.

With capital letters begin :

1. Every first word of a sentence or a verse ; as in English.
2. All substantives, whether proper or common names ; and also other parts of speech, when assuming the character of substantives ; as, *die Stadt London, the city of London* ; *das Schiff, the ship* ; *der Schuhmacher, the shoemaker* ; *die Geliebte, the beloved* ; *ein Schwarzer, a black, a negro* ; *das Erhabene, the sublime* ; *das Für und Wider, the pro and contra* ; *sein liebes Ich, his dear self* ; *das ewige Laufen, the everlasting running, &c.*

Obs. 1. In some instances it may be doubtful, whether a word stands in the character of a substantive or not ; in which case the use of a capital must be left to the discretion of the writer. Hence we meet with *Noth thun*, and *noth thun, to be needful* ; *Nicht geben*, and *nicht geben, to give heed* ; *Anfangs*, and *anfangs, at first* ; *Falls*, and *falls, in case*.

Obs. 2. If a compound substantive has its component parts joined by hyphens, each part, though separately it be no substantive, begins with a capital ; as, *der Ober-Hofmarschall, the hereditary earl-marshal* ; *der Unter-Offizier, the subaltern officer*.

Obs. 3. Attempts have been repeatedly made, by authors, to abolish the use of capital letters in substantives, and several works have been printed on this principle ; the contrary usage, however, prevails.

3. Adjectives that form a part of a proper name, although not joined to it into one word, and such as stand after a proper name in the quality of an epithet ; as, *das Rother Meer, the Red Sea* ; *Karl der Große, Charles the Great* ; *Friedrich der Zweite, Frederick the Second*.

4. Adjectives derived from proper names of persons ; as, *das Wernerische System, the Wernerian system* ; *die Platonische Philosophie, the Platonic philosophy*. And, in general, also those derived from proper names of places ; as, *die Wiener Zeitung, the Vienna Gazette* ; *die Leipziger Messe, the Leipsic Fair*. But adjectives derived from proper names of countries, are by the greater part of authors written without capitals ; as, *die deutsche Sprache, the German language* ; *die englische Nation, the English nation*.

5. Those pronouns that refer to the person we are addressing ; as, *Sie, or Ihr, you* ; *Ihnen, or Euch, to you* ; *Ihr, or Euer, your*.—The reflective pronoun *sich, yourself*, however, is generally used without a capital. The other pronouns ; as, *ich, I* ; *sie, she or they* ; *ihnen, to them, &c.* are never used with capitals, unless they commence a sentence or a verse.

OF MARKING VOWEL QUANTITY.

(Compare the present with §§ 13 and 14.)

§ 23. Vowels of long quantity have that quantity marked by appropriate lengthening letters, (*viz.* *h*, or an additional vowel ; as, *aa, ee, oo*,

ie, see the end of § 2.) if they stand at the end of the root, or before a liquid, and often also if they occur before *f* or *t*. Before the other consonants the long quantity is not marked, and must be ascertained from the vowel being followed by a single consonant (see § 13): except the long *i*, which has its usual mark of length (*ie*) before any consonant:—for examples see § 13. It must, however, be remarked here:

1. If *aa* and *oo* are to be inflected (see § 27), they lose one vowel; as, *Saal*, *saloon*; *Säle*, *saloons*; *haar*, *hair*; *härchen*, *a little hair*; *Boot*, *boat*, *Böte*, *boats*.

2. Words terminating in *ie*, or *ee*, drop the last vowel, if a syllable of inflection beginning with *e* is added; as, *der See*, *the lake*; *des Sees* (for *Sees*), *of the lake*; *Idee*, *idea*; *Ideen* (*Ideen*), *ideas*; *Knie*, *knee*; *Knie* (*Kniee*), *knees*; *knien* (*knien*), *to kneel*. (Compare § 12. *Obs.* 2.) Some authors, however, retain the *e* of *ie*, and write *Kniee*, *knien*.

3. The usage in respect to the lengthening letters, is not quite uniform; some writers having begun to omit them in a number of words, in which the long quantity may be known from the vowel being followed by a single consonant; whilst they retain them in others, where they are equally unnecessary. In a few other words some writers double the vowel, whilst others use *h* as a lengthening mark. We meet, therefore, with such variations as *Paar* and *Par*, *pair*; *NAME* and *Name*, *name*; *Botte* (see page 18) and *Bote*, *messenger*; *Boot* and *Both*, *boat*; *studieren* and *studiren*, *to study*; *Kameel* and *Kamehl*, *camel*, &c.

§ 24. More regularity prevails in the practice of marking the short quantity of a vowel by doubling the final consonant immediately following it. The consonants thus generally doubled are the liquids, and *f*, *t*, *p*, *s*, and *z** (see § 14). We have, however, to observe:

1. The double *f* (*ff*) is used only between two vowels of the same word; as, *hassen*, *to hate*; *Fässer*, *casks*; but at the end of a word, or before a consonant, *f* is used instead, even in words borrowed from foreign languages; as, *der Haß*, *the hatred*; *ich haßte*, *I hated*; *Prozeß*, *process*; *Paß*, *passport*: see *Obs.* 2. page 9.

2. Instead of double *f* and double *z*, *ff* and *zz* are invariably used. But if these characters are, in the syllabication of a word, to be divided, *ff* becomes *f:f*, and *zz* often *z:z*; thus *Schrecken*, *fright*, is spelled, when divided, *Schreck:fen*; and *sitzen*, *to sit*, *siz:zen*, and sometimes *sit:zen*. The latter is more according to analogy—see § 26, *Obs.* 1.

* The flat mutes are very seldom doubled; nay, it seems that their reduplication cannot take place without their being changed into their respective sharp mutes; as, *plagen*, *to plague*—*pladen*, *to pester*; *schieben*, *to shove*—*schuppen*, *to push*; *leiden*, *to suffer*—*litt*, *suffered*.—See also the conjugation of *schneiden* and *sieden*, in the list of irregular verbs.

3. The feminine termination *-inn*, as in *Gräfinn*, *countess*; *Königinn*, *queen*, is by some authors written with a single *n* in the singular, and with a double *n* in the plural; as, *Königin*, plural *Königinnen*, *queens*.

4. Also in words borrowed from foreign languages, the consonants are often doubled after short vowels, particularly *l* and *t*; as, *Cartell*, *cartel*; *Pallast*, *palace*; *offiziell*, *official*; *Litteratur*, *literature*; *Bankett*, *banquet*. But several authors begin to adhere, in this respect, to the original spelling of the word, and write *Cartel*, *Literatur*, &c. The final *l* in foreign adjectives terminating in *el* is almost universally doubled; as, *originell*, *original*; *reell*, *real*.

5. Diphthongs being naturally of long quantity, the consonants following them should never be doubled; thus, *reißen*, *to tear*; *schleifen*, *to grind*; and not *reissen*, *schleiffen*.

§ 25. ORTHOGRAPHICAL VARIATIONS.

Besides the differences in marking quantity just mentioned, there are some others, which must be noticed here to assist the learner in identifying such words as are affected by them.

1. Several words are variously spelled by different authors; thus we meet with *Käfig* and *Käsch*, *cage*; *Schwerd* and *Schwert*, *sword*; *Weizen* and *Weißen*, *wheat*; *betriegen* and *betrügen*, *to deceive*; *heirathen* (or *heyrathen*) and *heuratzen*, *to marry*; *mir dünkt* and *mir deucht*, *it seems to me*.

In some instances these differences arise from several of our present writers attending, in their spelling, more to the derivation of words than was formerly done; and in many others, from the immediate derivation of a word being doubtful. Thus many write now *Stämpel* for *Stempel*, *stamp*—being derived from *stampfen*, *to stamp*; *Uetern* for *Eltern*, *parents*—from *älter*, *older*. Some write *schlüsslich*, *finally*, as a derivative from *Schluß*, *conclusion*; whilst others write *schließlich*, deriving it from *schließen*, *to conclude*, &c. The very name *Deutsch* (German) is written by some *Teutsch*;—this being, they maintain, its original spelling, as may be seen from the Latin terms *Teutones* and *Teutonicus* (*Teutonic*), which are derived from it.

2. *y* is by the greater part of our present writers entirely discarded from German words, and *i* used instead; as, *zwei*, *two*; *dreyerley*, *three sorts of*; *Mai*, *May*,—instead of *zwey*, *dreyerley*, *May* *. The verb

* The German *y*, it is argued, must not be identified with the Greek *γ*, for *y* was formerly written *ij*, of which it is a mere contraction;—its present power being that of a mere *i*, it ought also to be written so. This practice, gaining ground daily, has been followed in the present Grammar.

ſeyn, to be, is however more generally spelled with y, to distinguish it from ſein, his. In words from foreign languages the original y is mostly retained; as, Sylbe, syllable; Phyſik, physics.

In order to assist the learner in his use of the dictionary, a list of all these orthographical variations, together with those mentioned in §§ 23 and 24, is subjoined.

Some words are written either with

aa	or	a
ä	..	e
äu	..	eu
ai	..	ei
* c	..	f
* c	..	z
* ç	..	ß
* ch	..	t
* ch	..	ſch
d	..	t
e	..	ö
ee	..	e
ei	..	eu.

g	or	ch
g	..	i
h	..	without
i	..	ü
i	..	y
ie	..	i
inn	..	in
* ll	..	l
* qu	..	f
s	..	ß
* ti	..	zi
* tt	..	t

Those marked with an asterisk apply only to foreign words; for many foreign words much in use, are written by several authors according to their pronunciation, without regard to their original spelling; thus Offizier, Nazione, Façade, Scharlatan, Kontrakt, Karakter; for Officier, Nation, Façade, Charlatan, Contract, Character, &c.

The German punctuation being in principle (though not always in practice) the same as the English, no particular rules on it are requisite. It may, however, be observed that the Germans hardly ever fail to put a comma at the beginning and at the end of relative clauses, and before the conjunction daß, that; though, on the whole, they use this point much less frequently than the English: thus, for instance, they never place between commas such words as *however, perhaps, too, in general, therefore, &c.* The colon, on the other hand, is often employed before the introduction of short phrases, and, with some writers, even of mere words, where, in English, the voice making but a short pause, a comma is thought sufficient; as, for instance, Und Gott sprach: es werde Licht, and God said, 'let there be light.' Wir hörten nur das Wort: vielleicht, we heard only the word 'perhaps.' Some authors use the colon also before clauses that express the mere substance of a preceding noun; as, Er machte die Bemerkung: daß er, &c., he made the observation, 'that he,' &c. In other respects the use of stops coincides in the two languages.

The other characters, as the apostrophe, the hyphen, the parenthesis, &c. are also used as in English—except that the genitive of appellatives and those contractions that are in general use, are not marked by an apostrophe; as, des Bruders Buch, the brother's book; gelobt (for gelobet—see the Conjugation of the Regular Verbs), praised; vom (von dem), of the.

ABBREVIATIONS OF MOST COMMON OCCURRENCE.

A. C.	Anno Christi, <i>in the year of our Lord.</i>	Rön.	Königlich, <i>royal.</i>
A. T.	Altes Testament, <i>Old Testament.</i>	Kr.	Kreuzer, <i>kreutzer (a coin).</i>
a. a. D.	am angeführten Orte, <i>at the place quoted.</i>	l.	lies, <i>read.</i>
Abschn.	Abschnitt, <i>section.</i>	l. J.	laufenden Jahres, <i>of the current year.</i>
Abth.	Abtheilung, <i>division.</i>	Lic.	Licentiat, <i>licentiate.</i>
Anm.	Anmerkung, <i>note.</i>	M. or Maj.	Majestät, <i>majesty.</i>
ausg.	ausgenommen, <i>except.</i>	Mr.	Magister, <i>magister.</i>
B.	Buch, Band, <i>book, volume.</i>	N. C.	Nachschrift, <i>postscript.</i>
B. R. D.	Beider Rechte Doctor, <i>doctor of (both) laws.</i>	N. T.	Neues Testament, <i>New Testament.</i>
C. Cap.	Capitel, <i>chapter.</i>	ed.	eder, <i>or.</i>
D. or Dr.	Doctor, <i>doctor.</i>	Pf.	Pfennig, <i>penny.</i>
d. h.	das heißt, <i>that is to say.</i>	Rthlr.	Reichsthaler, <i>ricdollar.</i>
d. i.	das ist, <i>that is.</i>	S.	Seite, <i>page.</i>
Dem.	Demoiselle, <i>Miss.</i>	f.	siehe, <i>see.</i>
derg. or dgl.	dergleichen, <i>of the same kind.</i>	fel.	selig, <i>blessed, late.</i>
Durchl.	Durchlaucht, <i>Highness, or Serene Highness.</i>	Th.	Theil, <i>part.</i>
Ev.	Evangelium, <i>Gospel.</i>	Thlr.	Thaler, <i>dollar.</i>
Eu.	Euer, <i>your.</i>	u.	und, <i>and.</i>
Exc.	Excellenz, <i>Excellency.</i>	u. a. m.	und andere mehr, <i>and several others.</i>
f or folg.	folgend, <i>the following.</i>	u. d. gl.	und dergleichen, <i>and the like.</i>
ff.*	folgende, <i>the following.</i>	u. f. f.	und so fort, <i>&c.</i>
fl.	Florin, <i>florin.</i>	u. f. w.	und so weiter, <i>&c.</i>
fr.	Frau, <i>Mrs.</i>	B.	Vers, <i>verse.</i>
geb.	geboren, <i>born.</i>	v.	von, <i>of.</i>
gest.	gestorben, <i>died.</i>	B. or Verf.	Verfasser, <i>author.</i>
Gr.	Groschen, <i>groschen.</i>	v. J.	vorigen Jahres, <i>of last year.</i>
h. C.	heilige Schrift, <i>Holy Writ.</i>	v. c.	von oben, <i>from above.</i>
heil.	heilig, <i>holy.</i>	v. u.	von unten, <i>from below.</i>
Hptst.	Hauptstück, <i>head, principal article.</i>	3.	Zeile, <i>line.</i>
Hr. Hrn.	Herr, Herrn, <i>Mr</i>	3. B.	zum Beispiel, <i>for example.</i>
J. C.	Jesus Christus, <i>Jesus Christ.</i>	3. G.	zum Exempel, <i>for example.</i>
Kais.	Kaiserlich, <i>imperial.</i>		

* ff. is used in reference to more than one succeeding page, paragraph, &c.

§ 26. ETYMOLOGICAL CORRESPONDENCE

BETWEEN THE GERMAN AND THE ENGLISH LETTERS.

The greater part of the English words derived from the Anglo-Saxon exist also in German, either with the same import—as, *Feuer, fire*; *Bruder, brother*,—or with a kindred import—as, *Lust (pleasure), lust*; *Hund, (dog), hound* *.

Several words have suffered no change, retaining in both languages the same letters; as, *Winter, Butter, Hand, Finger, Sand, Land, Strand, Wind, Wolf, Ring, blind, Geld, warm, Halm, bitter, Mast, Nest*—which are the same in English, *winter, butter, hand, &c.* Others are alike in sound though not quite in spelling; as, *Fischer, fisher*; *Haus, house*; *Glas, glass*; *Gras, grass*; *Busch, bush*; *rasch, rash*; *Och, ox*; *Bär, bear*; *Schein, shine, &c.* But by far the greatest part change their letters according to certain analogies, the knowledge of which will enable the student to learn a very considerable number of German words through the medium of his own language. We will, therefore, conclude this part of the Grammar which treats of the letters, by pointing out the etymological correspondence existing between the German and the English letters.

THE VOWELS have in a great many words remained unchanged, as may partly be seen from most of the preceding, and many of the following, examples. Two diphthongs, namely *au* and *ei*, remain, in most cases, alike in sound †, but not in character—*au* being in English *ou*,

* It often happens that a word exists only in one language, and derivatives or compounds of it in the other, or in both languages; thus, *verlieren, to lose*, the participle past of which is *verloren, lost*; hence the English *forlorn*. The English *leave* is found in German only in the words *Urlaub, leave of absence*; *erlauben, to permit, &c.*, but not by itself. Sometimes the same words have different servile syllables (§ 12); as, *genug, enough*; *bereit, ready*; *hinten, behind*;—or have a servile syllable in one language and appear in the other in the mere root: *Geleit, link*; *Haß, hatred*; *oft, often*. The latter is more frequently the case in English, where, for instance, the infinitives of the verbs, the imperatives, and many past participles have no servile syllables whatever; as, *to sing singen*; *sing (you), singet*; *sung, gesungen*. Therefore, only the radical letters (and of these merely the consonants—see the next page) come into consideration in the following remarks and examples.

† It is curious that the original sound of these diphthongs should have undergone the same changes in both languages; in those words where *au* agrees with *ou*, the sound was *u* in Old German as well as in Anglo-Saxon, (where it answers to the English *ea* it was in German originally *au*); and hence we find, in either language, words that have retained the old vowel (*u*), which, in the other language, have adopted its modern sound (*au* or *ou*); as, *du, thou*; *Kuh, cow*; *Pflug, plough*; *Grund, ground*; *rund, round*; *Pfund, pound, &c.*; *blau, blue*; *blau, thumb*, *Daume*; *scum, Schaum*; *up, auf*. *Ei*, where it answers to the English long *i*, was also *i* in the Old German, as well as in the Anglo-Saxon, and most probably pronounced in both languages like *ee*, so

and ei, *i*; as, *Haus*, *house*; *sauer*, *sour*; *Maus*, *mouse*; *tausend*, *thousand*; *Weise*, *wise*; *Seite*, *side*; *weit*, *wide*. In many words, however, both diphthongs become in English *ea*; as, *Traum*, *dream*; *berauben*, *to bereave*; *Haufen*, *heap*; *taub*, *deaf*; *Scheide*, *sheath*; *leiten*, *to lead*; *bleichen*, *to bleach*; *Weizen*, *wheat*. In many other words the German *ei* answers to the English *o*; as, *Stein*, *stone*; *Bein*, *bone*; *Geist*, *ghost*; *heiß*, *hot*; *heim*, *home*; *allein*, *alone*, &c. On the whole, however, the vowels differ so often, and so variously in the two languages, that the rules, that could be offered concerning their changes, would have too many exceptions to be practically useful. The identification of English and German words must, therefore, principally depend on their more substantial and more important letters—namely

THE CONSONANTS. These letters observe in their interchange, for the most part, a strict analogy, grounded on their organic formation. If we consider the organic formation of the consonants, we find that each of the three organs (namely lips, palate, and tongue, see § 4) produces three different sounds—viz. a sharp or slender sound (as it is called in the Greek Grammar), a flat or middle, and an aspirate. The three slender sounds are *p*, *f*, *t*; the three middle *b*, *g*, *d*. These six letters are also called mutes, and are the same in both languages. The aspirates may be considered as protraction or liquidations of the mutes, and are somewhat different in English, as will be seen in the following table.

	SLENDER.		MIDDLE.		ASPIRATES.	
	Germ.	Eng.	Germ.	Eng.	Germ.	Eng.
Labials	<i>p</i>	<i>p</i> .	<i>b</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>pf</i> or <i>f</i>	<i>f</i> or <i>v</i>
Palaticks	<i>f</i>	<i>k</i> (<i>c</i>)	<i>g</i>	<i>g</i>	<i>ch</i>	<i>y</i> or <i>gh</i> *
Linguals	<i>t</i> (<i>th</i>)	<i>t</i>	<i>d</i>	<i>d</i>	<i>z</i> or <i>ß</i>	<i>th</i>

Now, we find that either the consonants of a German word remain unchanged in the corresponding English word,—as, *Gift*, *gift*; *backen*, *to bake*; *Lippe*, *lip* †, &c.—or, generally,

the German	ASPIRATES	change in English to the	SLENDER	} of the same organ;
—	MIDDLE	—	ASPIRATE	
—	SLENDER	—	MIDDLE.	

that is, *pf* or *f* = *p*; *ch* = *k* &c.—as is exhibited in the following table, in which each German letter answers to the English below it.

that the original *ee* sound has become that of *i* (*ei*) in both. The ancient *sk* (or *sc*), too, has assumed the sound of *sh* in no other Teutonic branch so generally as in English and German—see *Obs.* 2.

* See note, page 45.

† The double consonants *dt*, *ff*, *ß*, *g*, &c. are, etymologically, considered as single consonants, viz. *t*, *f*, *g* or *f* (see note, page 46), *z*, &c.

German	pf or f,	ch,	3 or ß,		t,	g,	b,		p, f, t,
English	p,	k,	t,		f or v,	y or gh,	th,		b, g, d.

Examples.

Schaf, <i>sheep.</i>	Jähre, <i>tear.</i>	danke, <i>to thank.</i>
Seife, <i>soap.</i>	Weber, <i>weaver.</i>	Daume, <i>thumb.</i>
Haufen, <i>heap.</i>	Sieb, <i>sieve.</i>	dünne, <i>thin.</i>
reif, <i>ripe.</i>	Weib, <i>wife.</i>	du, <i>thou.</i>
Schiff, <i>ship.</i>	schieben, <i>to shove.</i>	da, <i>there.</i>
gaffen, <i>to gape.</i>	treiben, <i>to drive.</i>	Tod, <i>death.</i>
Pfeife, <i>pipe.</i>	Rabe, <i>raven.</i>	Pfad, <i>path.</i>
Woche, <i>week.</i>	haben, <i>to have.</i>	Rippe, <i>rib.</i>
kochen, <i>to cook.</i>	Taube, <i>dove.</i>	Polster, <i>bolster.</i>
Knöchel, <i>knuckle.</i>	taub, <i>deaf.</i>	Pflock, <i>plug.</i>
machen, <i>to make.</i>	tief, <i>deep.</i>	Schlacke, <i>slag.</i>
Ruchen, <i>cake.</i>	Dieb, <i>thief.</i>	Brücke, <i>bridge</i> (see note page 48).
suchen, <i>to seek.</i>	Silber, <i>silver.</i>	Ecke, <i>(corner) edge.</i>
auch, <i>eke.</i>	halb, <i>half.</i>	Hedge, <i>hedge.</i>
rauchen, <i>to reek.</i>	Kalb, <i>calf.</i>	Rücken, <i>(back) ridge, as</i> <i>in Bergrücken.</i>
bleich, <i>bleak.</i>	gelb, <i>yellow.</i>	Mücke, <i>midge.</i>
Zeichen, <i>token.</i>	Garn, <i>yarn.</i>	roth, <i>red.</i>
zapfen, <i>to tap.</i>	gähnen, <i>to yawn.</i>	Noth, <i>need.</i>
zahn, <i>tame.</i>	gestern, <i>yesterday.</i>	thun, <i>to do.</i>
zehn, <i>ten.</i>	Gäsch, <i>yeast.</i>	That, <i>deed.</i>
weiß, <i>white.</i>	wiegen, <i>to weigh.</i>	Tag, <i>day.</i>
sitzen, <i>to sit.</i>	Pflug, <i>plough.</i>	Thau, <i>dew.</i>
hassen, <i>to hate.</i>	Teig, <i>dough.</i>	Thal, <i>dale.</i>
Weizen, <i>wheat.</i>	Trog, <i>trough.</i>	
Hitze, <i>heat.</i>	genug, <i>enough.</i>	

To this general and very comprehensive rule we must add the following particulars:

1. The linguals change in general very regularly.—Of the labials, *p* seldom changes; *pf* always changes to *p*; *v* becomes *f*, as *Vater*, *father*; *b* and *f* remain unchanged at the beginning of words; but in the middle and at the end they mostly change, as described above. In a few words, however, *f* becomes *v* in English; as, *Schaufel*, *shovel*; *Hafen*, *haven*; *zwölf*, *twelve*, &c.—The interchange of the palaticks is more irregular: *t* remains, for the greater part, the same in English: in several words, however, it has become *ch*; as, *Kind*, *child*; *Käse*, *cheese*; *Kirche*, *church* (in Scotch, *kirk*); *Kinn*, *chin*; *Kalk*, *chalk*; *käuen*, *to chew*; *Bank*, *bench*; *Fink*, *finch*, &c.—The interchange of *g* with its aspirate seldom takes place; for at the beginning of words it generally remains unchanged; as, *gut*, *good*; *geben*, *to give*; and in the middle and at the

end it mostly changes into the vowels *y*, *i** or *w*, and after *l* and *r* into *ow*; as, *Tag*, *day*; *Weg*, *way*; *sagen*, to *say*; *liegen*, to *lie*; *fliegen*, to *fly*; *Regen*, *rain*; *Segel*, *sail*; *Hagel*, *hail*; *Nagel*, *nail*; *mögen*, *may*; *Magd*, *maid*; *Bogen*, *bow*; *Vogel* (*bird*), *fowl*; *Hagedorn*, *hawthorn*; *morgen*, to-morrow; *borgen*, to *borrow*; *folgen*, to *follow*; *Sorge*, (*care*) *sorrow*; *Galgen*, *gallows*; *Balg* or *Blasbalg*, *bellows*; *Talg*, *tallow*; *heiligen*, to *hallow*, &c.

Ch either changes to *k*, as in the above examples, or it corresponds with *gh* (formerly its identical sound †; as, *hoch*, *high*; *lachen*, to *laugh*; *Tochter*, *daughter*; *acht*, *eight*, &c.—The English *ch*, on the other hand, must not be identified with the German *ch*; for the Saxon words in English that are written with this character had originally a *c* instead, which through the influence of the French was changed to its present sound. Etymologically, therefore, *ch* must be considered as *k*, and, like this letter, corresponds both with the German *ch* and *f*: *Bruch*, *breach*; *bleichen*, to *bleach*; *ersuchen*, to *beseech*; *Wache*, *watch*; *Kind*, *child*, &c. (see the above examples.)

The letter *j* becomes *y* in English; consequently its sound is not changed: *Jahr*, *year*; *jung*, *young*; *Joch*, *yoke*.

It may finally be observed, that the three combinations of letters, *ft*, *cht*, and *sch*, remain always the same in English; as, *sanft*, *soft*; *Kluft*,

* The change into these vowels is of later origin; for in Anglo-Saxon the *g* remained; as, *dæg*, *day*; *wæg*, *way*, &c. But this letter must then have often been pronounced like *y*, these two characters having sometimes been substituted for one another,—as is still the case, in some instances, in the provincial pronunciation; for example, *yate* and *forget*, instead of *gate* and *forget*. In some parts of the north of Germany the common people cannot pronounce the hard sound of *g*, but substitute always that of *j* or *ch* for it.

† The English *gh* at the end of words and before *t*, was in Anglo-Saxon merely *h*; and in the corresponding German words, the ancient *h* became *ch*. For instance, the words *durch*, *through*, *recht*, *right*, were in the German of the ninth century, *thuruh* (or *duruh*), *reht*; and in Anglo-Saxon, *thurh*, *riht*. This *h* must in both languages have had the sound of the present German *ch*; for, when a language is first written, every letter must sound: silent letters arise only when the pronunciation changes, and the old orthography of the language remains. Now, it is not in the power of the voice to aspirate an *h* after which no vowel sound whatever is to be heard, without condensing it into a sound like the present German *ch*; which must, therefore, have been its sound in all the above cases. Afterwards, when they had acquired more experience in distinguishing the nicer shades of sounds in writing, the final *h*, and, at a later period, also the *h* before *t*, was written, in Old German, *ch*, and in English, *gh*, to distinguish it from the softer aspiration of *h*. The English *gh*, therefore, though now mostly silent, evidently was once pronounced like the German *ch*, as it is yet in Scotch; and the correspondence of *ch* with the English *k* and *gh* is, consequently, quite analogous to the correspondence of the labial aspirate *f* with the English *p* and *f*;—in both cases, the German aspirate corresponds both with the English aspirate and mute of its organ.

cleft; *fechten*, to fight; *recht*, right (*gh* being, as just stated, the German *ch*); *Forst*, forest; *Küste*, coast*.

2. The three pure aspirates or breathings, *h*, *m*, and *f*, belong to the three different organs (see § 4). The liquids belong to the linguals; except *m*, which is a labial. All these letters remain, for the most part, the same in both languages: *Wille*, will; *Horn*, horn; *Wurm*, worm; *sehen*, to see; *Glas* †, glass. (Concerning *sch* and *sh*, see *Obs.* 2.) In a few instances, however, interchanges take place also between these letters: viz. 1.) *m* with *w* and other labials: *mit*, with; *Wensch*, wench; *Himmel*, heaven; &c. 2.) *r* with *s*: *Hase*, hare; *Eisen*, iron; *war*, was; *verlieren*, to lose; *frieren*, to freeze, &c. 3.) *l* with *n* and *r*: *Zelt*, tent; *Kind*, child; *schleichen*, to sneak; *Cäbel*, sabre; *stammeln*, to stammer. 4.) *n* with *m*,—mostly in servile syllables: *Boden*, bottom; *selten*, seldom; *Busen*, bosom.

R is often dropped in English: *wünschen*, to wish; *uns*, us; *Rund*, mouth; *fünf*, five. This syncope has then the effect of changing *a* before a lingual into *oo* or *o*; as, *Gans*, goose; *Zahn* (Old German *Zahnd*), tooth; *der andere*, the other.

By transposition the liquids *l* and *r* often occur in one language after the vowel, whilst in the other they are before it (in the same way as in the verb *to work* and its imperfect *wrought*); as, *Bret*, board; *brennen*, to burn; *Borste*, bristle; *Ros* (Old German *Hros*), horse; *spalten*, to split; *spielen*, to play (see *Obs.* 2); *Furcht* (*fear*), fright; *Schirm*, screen.

* The letter *t*, it seems, has, in both languages, a tendency to join with the aspirates, and, when added to a word, often changes the preceding letter into its aspirate. Thus, *Gift*, gift, from *geben*, to give; *Trift*, drift, from *treiben*, to drive; from *schlagen* (to strike), to slay, comes *Schlacht*, battle, and *schlachten*, to slaughter; from *sehen*, to see, comes *Sicht*, sight; from *laden*, to load, *Last*, burden; from *frieren*, to freeze, *Frost*, frost (*r* being a lingual). Thus also the English imperfections taught, sought, might, bought, wrought, caught, brought, from the infinitives teach, seek, may, buy (Anglo-Saxon *magan*, *bygean*), work, &c. Also the English verb *must* belongs to this class; for, though it now imports present time, it is but the imperfect of the Anglo-Saxon *mot* (like the Dutch verb *moet*, imperfect *moest*), the mute of which, being in the imperfect followed by *t*, is changed into *s* (the pure aspirate of its organ), according to the preceding analogy. Also *wist* is, by the same rule, the imperfect as well of *wot* as of *wis*.

† It may assist the learner in the Orthography to remark, that after a short vowel the hissing sound in German is always written *ss* in the middle, and *ß* at the end of words (see § 24), whether its corresponding letter in English be *s* or *t*; as, *Wasser*, water: *Nuß*, nut; *missen*, to miss; *Kuß*, kiss. But after a long vowel *f* generally answers to the English *s*, and *ß* to the English *t*: *weist*, wise; *weiß*, white; *Gras*, grass; *groß*, great. The German *s*, therefore, seldom answers to the English *t*, except in *aus*, out; *es*, it; *was*, what; *daß*, the, or that (pronoun); and *los*, lot; in which words the *s* is only a modern innovation; in Old German they were more analogically spelled with *ß*; and our present distinction of the definitive *daß*, that, from the conjunction *daß*, that, did not exist, both words being originally identical.

3. It may further be said, that there are also three nasal sounds in German and English, produced by the three organs; namely, *mb* or *mp* by the lips, *ng* or *nf* by the palate, and *nd* or *nt* by the tongue. At least, in many words, the *m* and *n* must, etymologically, be considered as forming in conjunction with the following mute but one character, which often interchanges with other letters of the same organ. Thus the imperfects of the verbs *bringen*, to *bring*; and *denken*, to *think*, are *brachte*, brought; *dachte*, thought:—the nasal sound being changed into the aspirate. The words *frei* (Old German *frig*), *free*, and *frank*, *frank*; the words *wandern* and *wallen*, to *wander*; *Mund* and *Maul*, *mouth*; *Wand* and *Wall*, and the English *wall*; *reisen* and *rend*; *Schlumpe* and *sloven*; *Muth* or *Gemüth*, and the English *mind* and *mood*,—are all identical or kindred words, with the mere change of nasal characters for others of their respective organs. The English *mb* and *mp* are in the modern German mostly *mm*; as, *Lamm* (formerly *Lamb*), *lamb*; *frumm* (formerly *frump*), *crump*; *stumm*, *dumb*; *Ramm*, *comb*; *klimmen*, to *climb*; *Schlummern*, to *slumber*; *Zimmerholz*, *timberwood*; *wimmern*, to *wimper*, &c.

It is curious that a few verbs in Old German, and other branches of the Teutonic, had a double termination in their roots; one with a vowel or *h*, and the other with the nasal sound *ng* or *nd*; as, *haben* and *hangan*, to *hang*; *fahan* (which is yet used in poetry) and *fangan*, to *catch*; *gan* and *gangan*, to *go*; *staan* and *standan*, to *stand*.—In later times, it seems, one or the other of these terminations came into disuse, one dialect retaining one, another the other form; hence the Scotch verb *gang* and the English *to go*; the German *stehen* and the English *to stand*. The terminal difference between the German *leihen* and the English *to lend*, may, perhaps, have an analogous origin. The verbs *stehen* and *geben* have, in a part of their conjugation, retained the nasal termination (see the Conjugation of the Irregular Verbs).

4. In the radical terminations of some words we find, besides the interchanges of letters of the same organ, also the palaticks interchanging with linguals; as, *flach*, *flat*; *bitten*, to *beg*; *Bettler*, *beggar*; *Speichel*, *spittle*; *biegen*, to *bend*, &c.—but more frequently with labials; as, *schlaff*, *slack*; *kriechen*, to *creep*; *stechen*, to *stab*; *Woge*, *wave*;—and particularly the two aspirates; as, *seufzen*, to *sigh*; *sichten*, to *sift*; *Schacht*, *shaft* *.

* Thus also *Nichte*, *niece*, was formerly *Niste*; whence *Nesse*, *nephew*;—and the German *sachte*, and *sanft*, and the English *soft*, are, etymologically, identical words. This interchange of *st* with *cht* (or *ght*), occurs also very frequently in some other dialects of the Teutonic; for instance, German *Luft* (*air*), Dutch *Lucht*;—German *tint*, Low German (or Plattdeutsch—see page 1) *locht*, English *left*;—English *after*, Dutch *achter*. In Old English, *ht* or *ght* sometimes rhymes with *st*; as, *softe* with *bought* and *wrought*;—*dohter* (daughter)

Obs. 1. The same correspondence of letters which exists between the German and English, exists likewise, more or less, between the German and all the other Teutonic dialects (see page 1); that is, the German letters are either the same in those branches, or, if they change, the German aspirates answer to their slender mutes, the German middle to their aspirates, &c. Thus the word *tief*, *deep*, is in the Gothic, *diup*; in Anglo-Saxon, *deop*; in Swedish, *djup*; in Low German, *deep*; and in Dutch, *diep*.—*Weib*, *wife*, is in Anglo-Saxon, *wif*; in Icelandic, *vif*; in Danish, *viv*; in Dutch, *wyf*.—*Zeichen*, *token*, is in the Gothic, *taikns*; in Anglo-Saxon, *tacn*; in Swedish, *Tekn*; in Dutch and Low German, *Teken*.

The following remarks, it is presumed, will throw some light on the most frequent interchanges, namely, on those between the mutes and aspirates.

Proceeding on the supposition that, in such interchanges, the mute is, in general, the original letter, and the aspirate a later corruption of it, we may observe that each of the two main branches of the Teutonic (see page 1) is marked by a peculiar tendency with reference to this change of mutes into their aspirates.

1.) THE LOWER BRANCH (to which also the Gothic must in this respect be referred) inclines, especially in the middle and at the end of words, to change the flat mutes *b*, *g*, *d*, into their corresponding aspirates *f* or *v*, *h* (*gh*), and *th*. Thus many words in the Gothic and Anglo-Saxon change, in their conjugation, or declension, their flat mutes into aspirates; for instance, in Gothic, *hlaitis* (loaf) is in the accusative *hlaitf*; *bindan* (to bind) is in its imperfect *banth*;—the Anglo-Saxon *bugan* (to bow) is in the imperfect *beah*. And hence the German *t*, *g*, and *b*, become so often aspirates in the dialects of the other branch. This tendency has continued its effects down to the English; in which the flat mutes of many Saxon words have become aspirates; as, Saxon, *habban*, English, to have; *fader*, father; *modor*, mother; *trog*, trough; *dweorg*, dwarf (*dwargh*—see note page 47); *genog*, enough, &c. The frequent change of the Anglo-Saxon *g* into *y* in English (see page 45) must also be attributed to this tendency; for the consonant *y*, the other aspirate of *g*, becomes, naturally, a mere vowel at the end of words, or before consonants.

2.) THE HIGHER BRANCH (the German), on the other hand, has the tendency to change, in the middle and at the end of words, the slender or sharp mutes *p*, *t*, *k*, into their aspirates *f*, *th*, *ch*; but more frequently, and even at the beginning of words, the slender becomes a complex sound in German;—namely, it commences with the mute sound and terminates with the aspirate of its organ: from which combination of slender and aspirate arose the three complex sounds peculiar to the German, viz. *pf*, *t* (i. e. *ts*, as it is pronounced), and *ch* (i. e. *c* or *t*, and *h*). These characters invariably answer to the slender mutes *p*, *t*, *k*, of the other branches, from which letters, it should seem, they are formed by adding to each mute the aspirate of its respective organ*. In *pf* and *t* this complex sound of the slender and aspirate exists

with *ofte*, &c. Also in German, Dutch, and Low German poems of the 13th century, such rhymes occur frequently; for instance, *ſchaft* with *braht*; *ſtaft* with *Naht*, &c. (see Grimm's *Deutsche Grammatik*, vol. i.) It would seem, therefore, that the pronunciation of *h* before *t* at that period, was uncertain, and fluctuated between the guttural and labial aspiration, which in English, from its aversion to this guttural sound, may have extended also to the final *h*, whence probably the present pronunciation of *gh* in the words *cough*, *laugh*, *enough*, &c. In Spanish the contrary change has taken place, the Latin *f* having become *h* in many words; as, *facere*, *hacer*; *ferrum*, *hierro*; *filum*, *hilo*, &c.

* Even in several of the foreign words that were introduced into the German, the slender mutes *p* and *t* underwent this change; as, *Pflanze*, (*plant*); *Pfaffe*, (*priest*)—from the Latin *planta*, *papa*.

yet in the pronunciation, and needs no further demonstration. But it is most probable that *ð* also, had originally no other sound than that of the letters of which it is compounded—namely, *c* and *h*; and that, consequently, like *pf* and *ʒ*, it consisted of a mute and its aspirate. For, 1st, in the oldest German writings *ð* was continually used at the beginning of words which were afterwards, and are still, written with *f*; which change, if the *c* in *ð* was sounded, amounted merely to the omission of *h*—an omission quite natural, considering that *h* cannot be aspirated without exertion after a mute.—2dly, because in its reduplication, after a short vowel, it was written *dh*, which proves that the initial sound of *ð* must have been that of *f*: for it seems to have been a principle in the Teutonic, that if a complex sound was to be doubled, it was done only with its first or incipient sound, and not with the whole; thus *pf* was after short vowels written *ppf*, and *ʒ* is still in that case written *ʒ* instead of *ʒʒ* (see § 24)*.—The *h* in *ð* had probably the sharp aspiration of the final *h*, that is of the present *ch* (see *Obs.* page 14), similar to *pf* and *ʒ*, in which the aspirate sound is likewise sharp—viz. *f* and *ʒ*, and not *w* and soft *f*;—for, from a kind of assimilation, the aspirate has always a sharp sound before and after sharp (slender) mutes. From all which it may be presumed, that *ð* once sounded as we should now pronounce *tch*. This harsh combination lost afterwards its aspirate sound at the beginning of words, and was written *f*; and in the middle of words it lost its *f* sound, and assumed its present pronunciation. Having once lost its admixture of the *f* sound, it was found a fit character to represent the strong guttural aspiration of *h*, and was therefore used also for *h* whenever this latter had a sharp aspiration, that is, at the end of words, and before *t*. (See Note †, page 45.) It is not improbable that *f* and *ʒ*, when they answer to *p* and *t* of the other dialects, originated in a similar manner from *pf* and *ʒ*, of which the mute sound was dropped at some remote period. This would explain why no German word begins with *ʒ*, or *ch*, or with the *f* which answers to *p* of other dialects, although so many begin with the complex aspirates *pf* and *ʒ*; for we may naturally suppose that the initial mute sound is less liable to be dropped at the beginning of a word, than in the middle or end of it.

Obs. 2. The three pure aspirates *w*, *h*, and *ʒ*, were in the ancient Teutonic often combined with certain consonants, principally liquids.

W was in Anglo-Saxon often prefixed to *l* and *r*, and still exists before *r* in many English words; in German, however, it is never put before consonants: thus the English *to wring*, *to wrench*, are in German *ringen*, *rennen* (in *verrennen*).

H, which was anciently often prefixed to the liquids *l*, *n*, *r*, and to *w*, is now omitted before liquids, both in German and English; for instance, the Old German words *hleitar*, *hnuß*; Saxon, *hlaedar*, *hnut*; are now *Leiter*, *ladder*; *Ruß*, *nut*. (Concerning *hw* see the next observation.)

S was in Old German, as well as in Anglo-Saxon, often prefixed to the letters *l*, *m*, *n*, *w*, and to the sharp mutes (*p*, *k*, *t*); but seldom to flat mutes †.

* This explains also the origin of *tch* and *dg* in English. The reduplication of *c* was in Anglo-Saxon *cc*, and of *g*, *cg* or *gg*. When afterwards, through the influence of the French, *c* assumed in certain words the sound of *ch* (*tch*), and *g* that of the soft *g* (*dj*), the incipient sound of these letters having thus become *t* and *d*, their reduplication was, in consequence, spelled *tch* and *dg*; thus, for instance, the Saxon *wacce* has become in English *watch*; the Saxon *streccan*, *stretch*; *brigge*, *bridge*: from which it may also be seen, that the letters *c* and *g* in Anglo-Saxon had always the hard sound, at least in the earlier periods of the language.

† If *s* is prefixed to a word beginning with a flat mute, it changes the latter to the sharp of its organ; as may be seen, for instance, by comparing *freiten* with *spreiten*, and the English *to spread*; *darben* with *to starve*; *guilt* with *ſchuld* (Old German *scult*).

We find, therefore, in those languages only the following combinations with this letter: *sl, sm, sn, sw, sp, st, sc* (or *sk*), and *scr*. The first change that took place in Old German was with *st*, which was changed to *sch*. At a much later period also the *f* before *l, m, n,* and *w*, was changed to *sch*;—which at that time must already have had its present sound, namely, that of the English *sh*.—At last, says a late publication*, the *f* before *v* and *t* also passed into the sound of *sch*; but without changing its orthography—probably, as we may presume, because the latter had, by that time, gained some stability.

Also the Anglo-Saxon *sc*, in which probably both letters were distinctly sounded †, was changed in Old English to *sch*, and afterwards to *sh*; but all the other above-mentioned Saxon combinations (*sl, sm, sn, &c.*) have remained unchanged in English. Hence we find that the German *sch* before *l, m, n,* and *w*—i. e. where it answers to the ancient *s*—corresponds with the English *s*; but in all the other cases, having originated from *sc*, it corresponds with the English *sh*; as, *schwimmen, to swim*; *Schnee, snow*; *schmieren, to smear*; *Schlaf, sleep*; *scharf, sharp*; *Fleisch, flesh*; *Schrein, shrine*; &c. In a few instances, however, the ancient *sc* has remained unchanged in English, whilst in German it went into the sound of *sch*; as, *Schaum, scum*; *schelten, to scold*; *Flasche, flask*; &c.

Although this initial *s*, in some instances, appears to be a servile letter, and to modify the root;—thus *to smelt* seems to be derived from *to melt*, and to *swing* from *wing* (analogously to the derivation of *to hear* from *ear*, by the prefixing of an aspirate)—yet it is often omitted in either language, without affecting the import of the word; as, *stumm, dumb*; *niesen, to sneeze*; *kratzen, to scratch*; *turz, short* (Saxon *sceort*); *Schnabel, nib*; *schreien, to cry*; and *schmelzen* is used now both for *to melt* and *to smelt* ‡.

Obs. 3. The English *wh*, which was in Anglo-Saxon written *hw* (as it is yet pronounced in English), and in the corresponding Old German words *hw*, or *hu*, has in modern German dropped its *h*, and become merely *w*; as, *wann, when*; *was, what*; *weiß, while*; &c.—Old German *hwan* or *huan*, *hwa*, &c.

In the Gothic, *hw* occurs also in the middle and at the end of words, which, in Old German and Anglo-Saxon (where *hw* is seldom found but at the beginning of words), have only *h*; as, *leiþen* (Saxon *lihan*), *to lend*, is in Gothic *leiþwan*; *nah, nigh*, Gothic *nehwa* §. In the verb *seþen, to see*, the German and Saxon seem to have dropped each a different aspirate from the original *hw* found in the Gothic; the infinitive, imperfect, and participle past of this

* See Grimm's Deutsche Grammatik, vol. i.

† As we may conclude from those words where the original *sc* has remained; as, *scum, skin, &c.*; and particularly from the circumstance of *sc* being often, by transposition, changed to *x*—i. e. *cs*: for instance, *fixas* for *fiscas* (fishes); *askian* for *askian* (to ask). Thus also the word *twist*, Saxon *twyz*, is probably a transposition of *twisc*, as it is yet in Scotch *twish*, and in German *zwischen*;—and the English *to mix* is a similar transposition from the Saxon *miscan*, German *mischen*. This change of *sc* into *x* would be inexplicable, if *sc* had been pronounced like the present *sh*.

‡ The labial and palatic mutes before liquids are also not always radical letters, and are therefore sometimes omitted in one language, though retained in the other; as, *stumpen, lump*, or *clump*; *Rahm, cream*; *nagen, to gnaw*; *Blick, look*; *gleich, like*; *Glück, luck*.—The *g* in the two last examples was originally the prefix *ge*, of which the *e* was dropped in time. Thus also the German *glauben* (contracted from *gelauben*), and the English *believe*, are one and the same word, only with different prefixes.

§ In the Anglo-Saxon verb *nehwan* (to approach), the ancient *hw* is yet preserved.

verb being in Gothic *saihwan*, *sahw*, *gasaihwan*; in German *sehen*, *sah*, *gesehen*; and in Saxon *seon*, *saw* (or *sah*), *gesewen*. It appears not improbable, that *hw* was the original sound also in most others of that numerous class of words in which the German *h* answers to the English *w*; as, *frähen*, to *crow* (Saxon *crawan*); *Stroh*, *straw*; *mähen*, to *mow* (Saxon *mawan*); *Reihe*, *row*; &c.*

* What has been said of the Teutonic *hw* may be corroborated by the *qu* of such words as are common to the Latin and the Teutonic;—which, at the same time, will afford us one or two of those instances wherein the original form of the parent, or rather common, language, has been better preserved in the latter than in the former. The Teutonic aspirates correspond, generally, with the Latin slender mutes—particularly the palatics; as, *haupt*, *caput*; *heri*, *cor*; *hern*, *cornu*; *Bieh*, *pecus*; *acht*, *octo*; *recht*, *rectum*; &c.—Consequently, the Teutonic *hw* answers exactly to the Latin *qu*; as, *when*, *quando*; *which* (Saxon *hwilc*), *qualis*; *what*, *quod*; &c.—Now we often find that only one letter—a labial or palatic—of the Latin *qu* is retained in the Teutonic; as, *æque*, even; *linguo*, I leave; *quinque*, *fünfe*; *quatuor*, Gothic *fidvor*; *coqueo*, *ich fache*; *aqua* (in Gothic still with both aspirates *ahwa*), Old German *aha*. Thus also the Latin *torquere*, by transposition of the *r*, is in German *drehen*, and in Anglo-Saxon *thrawan*,—each language having retained a different aspirate. But, on the other hand, we find also words in which the Latin seems to have retained one letter of the original *qu*, and the Teutonic the other, or both; thus *fommen*, to *come*, and the Latin *venire*, are both derived from the Old Teutonic *quiman*. The German and Saxon *quick* (alive)—in the Westmoreland dialect *hwick*—is in the Gothic *quiw*; which points to an original form of *quiqu*, the final *qu* of which dropped in German the aspirate, and in Gothic the mute. In the Latin *vivus* and *vivo*, both the initial and final *qu* of the original *quiqu* have dropped their mute sounds, whilst in *vixi* (i. e. *vici*) and *victum* the mute of the final *qu* is preserved, and the aspirate omitted (similar to *cuctum* and *relictum*, from *coqueo* and *relinquo*). This accounts also for the apparently anomalous interchange of *c* and *v* in this verb.—An original *qu* may be supposed to have existed also in the few other Latin words in which an interchange of *c* and *v* takes place; as in *nix*, *nivis*; *conniveo*, *connixi*;—a supposition which receives some confirmation from the fact that related languages have corresponding words, some with *g* or *h*, and some with *w*.

PART II.

ETYMOLOGY.

§ 27. ETYMOLOGY divides and subdivides words, according to their nature, into classes or parts of speech; points out the changes which they undergo in order to express the accidents peculiar to each; and, lastly, shows the laws by which words are formed by derivation from, and composition with, each other.

Most German grammarians adopt the usual nine parts of speech; namely—

The Article, Artikel or Deutewort.

The Substantive, Hauptwort.

The Adjective, Beiwort.

The Pronoun, Fürwort.

The Verb, Zeitwort.

The Adverb, Nebenwort.

The Preposition, Verhältnißwort.

The Conjunction, Bindewort.

The Interjection, Empfindungswort—

the definitions of which the learner is supposed to know from his English grammar.

The last four, namely, the adverb, preposition, conjunction, and interjection (which are also sometimes comprehended under the general name of particles), are not inflected*. The other five are inflected—that is, they undergo certain changes to express those relations by which they are generally affected, and which, not being essential, are called accidents. Thus in English, the last syllable in *churches* expresses merely the accident of plurality; and the last syllable in *laughed*, that of past time.

* However the adverb admits (like the adjective) servile terminations to express the degrees of comparison.

The changes of the article, substantive, adjective, and pronoun, are called *declension*; those of the verb, *conjugation*. Both, the declension and conjugation, are formed chiefly by annexes (§ 12); except the participle past, which, generally, receives moreover the prefix *ge*. The letters of inflection used in the whole process of declension and conjugation, are *e*, *m*, *n*, *r*, *ſ*, *t*, *g*, and *ð*; of which the last two are used only in the participles.

Obs. That part of a word of which no letter is omitted in the declension or conjugation, we shall call its *grammatical root*; which, therefore, different from the radical syllable, excludes only letters of inflection, but not letters of derivation. (See § 12, rule 4.) Thus, for instance, the grammatical root of *hostesses* would be *hostess*; but its radical syllable is *host*.

Besides the addition of letters, the German language makes also frequent use of another means of inflection in its declension and conjugation—viz. a change of the radical vowels *a*, *o*, *u*, *au*, into *ä*, *ö*, *ü*, *äu*; for instance, *Bruder*, brother, *Brüder**, brothers; *Ich war*, I was, *Ich wäre*, I were, or I should be. This etymological change of the above vowels, the German grammarians call the *Umlaut*; and which we shall call *the vowel inflection*†.

The derivation of words from one another is effected, for the most part, by prefixes and annexes, and is, besides, generally accompanied by the vowel inflection, as will be shown in its proper place.

§ 28. DECLENSION.

The accidents denoted by the declension are *Gender*, *Number*, and *Case*. There are three genders, *Masculine*, *Feminine*, and *Neuter*; two numbers, *Singular* and *Plural*; and four cases, *Nominative*, *Genitive*, *Dative*, and *Accusative*.

* A few traces of this vowel inflection in the formation of the plural of substantives, are found also in English; as, *foot*, *feet*; *tooth*, *teeth*; *brother*, *brethren*; *mouse*, *mice*; *man*, *men*.

† The other vowels and diphthongs (*e*, *i*, *ä*, *ö*, *ü*, *ai*, &c.) are never inflected; and the term *vowel inflection* invariably refers to such words only as have the vowels *a*, *o*, *u*, or *au*, in their root.

Obs. These four cases denote the four relations in which the substantive is most frequently placed. The nominative denotes the subject of the action, or the noun to which the verb attributes something *. The genitive or, as it is called in English grammars, the possessive case, expresses generally the relation of possession or property, and is in English either preceded by the sign *of*, or has 's added to it. The dative denotes the indirect or mediate object of the action; that is, the noun for whose sake the action is done. This case is designated in English by *to*, or *for*—expressed or understood. The accusative case denotes the direct or immediate object of the action. In the sentence, 'My friend delivered his father's letter to the master of the house,' *friend*, as the subject or the noun to which here the action of delivering is attributed, is in the nominative; *letter*, as the immediate object of the action or as the thing delivered, is in the accusative; *master* is in the dative; and *father's* and *house* are in the genitive. In the expression, 'We sent him away,' *him* is in the accusative; but in, 'We sent him a book,' *book*, as the thing sent, is in the accusative, whilst *him* is in the dative, for it means *to him*.

These four obvious relations are marked by appropriate terminations of the noun, or its dependents; all others—as those of cause, instrumentality, end, &c.—are expressed by prepositions; in the same way as the German dative is expressed in English by *to* or *for*.

The four cases have different terminations for the singular and plural. In the singular they have, moreover, distinct terminations for each gender; but in the plural the same inflections are used for all genders. (§ 29.) Substantives, therefore, as they have each but one gender, are capable of eight variations, four for the singular and four for the plural; but they are very defective in their inflections, none of them completing the whole eight, and most of them having no more than two or three. This deficiency is, however, supplied by their dependents, the articles, adjectives, and adjective pronouns. These, not importing any thing existing of itself, can have neither gender, case, nor number, belonging to them; but, as subsidiaries of the substantive, they must agree with it in gender, case, and number:—that is, they are provided with appropriate terminations to

* The nominative is also used when a substantive is adduced simply as the name of a subject, without any relation to other words; for instance, as it occurs in dictionaries.

express these accidents of the nouns to which they belong. Being joined with substantives of all genders, they are capable of sixteen variations; but they have the same inflection for more than one accident—as will be seen in the following section.

It must further be observed, that the declinable parts of speech do not all use the same endings for marking the same accidents; the article, for instance, marks the dative singular of the masculine and neuter gender by *em*; the substantive marks the same case sometimes by *e*, and the adjective, often by *en*. All declinable words may therefore be arranged under the following four declensions; namely—

1. The declension of the definitives.
2. The declension of the substantives.
3. The declension of the adjectives.
4. The declension of the personal pronouns.

§ 29. DECLENSION OF DEFINITIVES.

The articles and the adjective pronouns, which are here, after the example of several grammarians, comprehended under the name of *definitives* (from their common peculiarity of defining and particularizing the noun), having in German very nearly the same declension, and the same influence on that of the adjectives, we shall materially simplify this part of the grammar by comprising them under one general view, and thus anticipating here the declensions of most adjective pronouns.—A few of the latter, however, which have some peculiarities in their declension, as well as some particulars concerning a few of the following definitives, will be more conveniently explained when we treat of the pronouns.

The definitives may be arranged under two declensions; namely, the complete, and the defective declension.

1. *Complete declension*, in which each case has an inflection annexed to it.

Inflections of the Complete Declension.

	Singular.			Plural.
	masc.	fem.	neut.	for all genders.
N.	—er	—e	—es	—e
G.	—es	—er	—es	—er
D.	—em	—er	—em	—en
A.	—en	—e	—es	—e

Thus are declined, among others, the following words;—that is, the preceding inflections are added to their first syllable, which is their grammatical root:

dieser, <i>this.</i>	welcher, <i>which.</i>	aller, <i>all.</i>	mancher, <i>many</i>
jener, <i>that.</i>	jeder, <i>every.</i>	solcher, <i>such.</i>	a (man).

as,

	Singular.			Plural.
	masc.	fem.	neut.	for all genders.
N.	dieser,	diese,	dieses, <i>this ;</i>	diese, <i>these.</i>
G.	dieses,	dieser,	dieses, <i>of this ;</i>	dieser, <i>of these.</i>
D.	diesem,	dieser,	diesem, <i>to this ;</i>	diesen, <i>to these.</i>
A.	diesen,	diese,	dieses, <i>this ;</i>	diese, <i>these.</i>

Obs. 1. The adjectives also have this declension, if unpreceded by another definitive, as will be explained in its proper place.

2. Defective declension.

This is like the preceding declension, except in three of its cases—namely, the nominative of the masculine, and the nominative and accusative of the neuter gender—which want the usual inflections *er* and *es*; and for which reason this declension is called the *Defective*.

Inflections of the Defective Declension.

	Singular.			Plural.
	masc.	fem.	neut.	for all genders.
N.	—	—e	—	—e
G.	—es	—er	—es	—er
D.	—em	—er	—em	—en
A.	—en	—e	—	—e

Thus are declined the following eight words ; that is, the preceding inflections are annexed to them :

mein, *my*; sein, *his*, or *one's*; euer, *your*; ein, *a*, or *one*;
 dein, *thy*; unser, *our*; ihr, *their*, or *her*; kein, *no*;

as,

Singular.			Plural.
masc.	fem.	neut.	for all genders.
N. mein,	meine,	mein,	meine, <i>my</i> .
G. meines,	meiner,	meines,	meiner, <i>of my</i> .
D. meinem,	meiner,	meinem,	meinen, <i>to my</i> .
A. meinen,	meine,	mein,	meine, <i>my</i> .

Obs. 2. The termination *er* in *unser*, *our*, and *euer*, *your*, belongs to the grammatical root (§ 27), and is, therefore, different from *er* in *dieser* and *jener*, &c., where it is a syllable of inflection : hence *unser*, genitive *unseres*, dative *unserem*, &c. and not *unses*, *unsem*, &c.

Obs. 3. The *e* of the ending *er* in *unser* and *euer*, may be dropped when these words become inflected ; as, *unses*, *eures*, *unsem*, *eurem*, &c. instead of *unseres*, *eueres*, &c. In the cases terminating in *es*, *em*, *en*, the *e* of inflection is sometimes dropped instead of that of the grammatical root ; as, *unser*, *unsem*, *unsern*, for *unseres* or *unses*, &c.

When any one of these eight words is not followed by a substantive or adjective, it has the complete declension ; as, *Ihr Bruder und unserer* (or *unser Bruder*), *her brother and ours*; *Mein Haus ist größer als seines* (or *sein Haus*), *my house is larger than his*; *Er hat ein Haus in der Stadt, und eins auf dem Lande*, *he has a house in town, and one in the country*; *Ich kenne keines dieser Kinder*, *I know none of these children*. But if an adjective follows, the defective case remains defective ; as, *Mein Haus ist alt, ich muß ein neues bauen*, *my house is old, I must build a new one*.

§ 30. THE ARTICLE.

There are two articles, as in English ; viz. the definite, *der*, *the* ; and the indefinite, *ein*, *a*. The latter has the de-

fective declension, the former the complete; with this peculiarity, however, that the nominative and accusative cases of the neuter gender have *daß* instead of *deß*; and the same cases of the feminine gender and of the plural number, *die* for *de*.

Definite Article.

	Singular.			Plural.
	masc.	fem.	neut.	for all genders.
N.	<i>der,</i>	<i>die,</i>	<i>daß,</i>	<i>die, the.</i>
G.	<i>deß,</i>	<i>der,</i>	<i>deß,</i>	<i>der, of the.</i>
D.	<i>dem,</i>	<i>der,</i>	<i>dem,</i>	<i>den, to the.</i>
A.	<i>den,</i>	<i>die,</i>	<i>daß,</i>	<i>die, the.</i>

Obs. 1. *Der, die, daß*, is also used as a relative, and as a demonstrative pronoun; but then the genitive throughout, and the dative of the plural, have different terminations; for which see the pronouns.

Obs. 2. The definite article is in dictionaries and grammars often put before substantives, merely to show their genders.

Obs. 3. The dative singular of this article, *dem* and *der*, and the accusative neuter, *daß*, are frequently compounded with certain prepositions, and then contracted as follows:

<i>Am</i> , for <i>an dem</i> , <i>at the.</i>	<i>fürß</i> , for <i>für daß</i> , <i>for the.</i>
<i>anß</i> , for <i>an daß</i> , <i>at the.</i>	<i>im</i> , for <i>in dem</i> , <i>in the.</i>
<i>aufß</i> , for <i>auf daß</i> , <i>upon the.</i>	<i>inß</i> , for <i>in daß</i> , <i>into the.</i>
<i>heim</i> (or <i>beym</i>), for <i>bei</i> (or <i>bey</i>)	<i>vom</i> , for <i>von dem</i> , <i>from the.</i>
<i>dem</i> , <i>by the.</i>	<i>zum</i> , for <i>zu dem</i> , <i>to the.</i>
<i>durchß</i> , for <i>durch daß</i> , <i>through the.</i>	<i>zur</i> , for <i>zu der</i> , <i>to the.</i>

In colloquial language, other contractions of a similar nature are also frequently used; as, *hinterm*, *üterm*, *üters*, *vors*, &c., for *hinter dem*, *üder dem*, *üder daß*, *vor daß*, &c.; but they are not approved of by grammarians.

In some instances, *zum* and *zur* are contractions of *zu* and the indefinite article *cinem* and *einer*. See the use of the article in the Syntax.

*Indefinite Article.**Singular.*

N. ein,	eine,	ein, a.	} No Plural.
G. eines,	einer,	eines, of a.	
D. einem,	einer,	einem, to a.	
A. einen,	eine,	ein, a.	

The following will exemplify the inflections of the preceding definitives :

Der Sohn des Fischers gab dem Nachbar den Fisch. *The son of the fisherman gave the neighbour the fish.*

Die Schwester der Königin gab das Geld den Armen. *The sister of the queen gave the money to the poor.*

Unsere Freunde kennen die Brüder dieses Mannes und die Schwestern dieser Frau. *Our friends know the brothers of this man and the sisters of this woman.*

Hier ist der Mann, welcher meinen Bruder lehrt, und welchen mein Bruder so liebt. *Here is the man who teaches my brother, and whom my brother loves so much.*

Diesen Kaufmann empfahl ich meinem Bruder. *This merchant I recommended to my brother.*

Diesem Kaufmanne empfahl ich meinen Bruder. *To this merchant I recommended my brother.*

THE SUBSTANTIVE.

The declension of the German substantives is various and intricate : however, the oblique cases (genitive, dative, and accusative) of both numbers are pretty uniform, and will be brought under four simple rules (§ 44). It is in the nominative plural that substantives differ most ; and the formation of this case depending, in a great degree, on the gender of the noun, we shall first treat of the gender, then of the plural, and lastly of the cases.

GENDER.

§ 31. The gender follows the sex of the noun (§ 32), as in English ; but inanimate things, which in English are all of the neuter gender, are in German, as in most other lan-

guages, distributed among all three genders; as for instance, *der Stein, the stone; die Thür, the door; das Fenster, the window*.—*Stein* therefore is, grammatically, considered as a male, and *Thür* as a female; though they are destitute of sex. Gender, when it arises from sex, is called natural; in other cases, grammatical. The latter depends in German mostly on the termination of the word; namely, whether it ends with, or without, a servile syllable; and, in the former case, with what servile syllable it ends (§§ 34, 35, 36). The prefixes have no influence on the gender, except *ge* (§ 36, rule 3). Compounds adopt the gender (as well as the declension) of their last component parts; as, *das Baumöl, the olive oil; der Delbaum, the olive-tree*—*Del* being neuter, and *Baum* masculine.

SEX, or NATURAL GENDER.

§ 32. Substantives denoting males are masculine, and those denoting females are feminine; as, *der Mann, the man; der Sohn, the son; Carl der Fünfte, Charles the Fifth; der Widder, the ram—die Frau, the woman; die Tochter, the daughter; Catharina die Erste, Catherine the First; die Muse, the muse; die Henne, the hen*.

Except. *a.*) *das Weib, the wife; das Mensch, the wench**; and the compounds *das Frauenzimmer, the lady; das Weibsbild, the woman; das Mannsbild, the man; eine Mannsperson, a person of the male sex; die Schildwache, the sentinel*;—which, like all compounds, have the gender of their last component part.

b.) The diminutives, which are all of the neuter gender; as, *das Männchen or Männlein, the little man; das Schwesterchen, the little sister; das gute Hänschen, dear little Jack*;—hence also, *Mädchen, girl; and Fräulein, an unmarried lady of nobility, also Miss*, are neuter, being, etymologically, the diminutives of *Magd, maid, and Frau, lady, woman*.

Obs. Substantives, both appellatives and proper names, are rendered diminutives by annexing *chen* †, or *lein*—see the above examples. The diminutives in *chen* are of general use; those in *lein* are confined chiefly to poetry. Both formations are attended by the vowel inflec-

* *Der Mensch* denotes *man, human being*.

† It is the same as the English termination *kin* in *lambkin, mannikin*.

tion; thus, *der Mann, the man*—*das Männchen, or Männlein, the little man*; *eine Tochter, a daughter*—*ein Töchterchen, or Töchterlein, a little daughter*. If the substantive terminates in *ch* or *g*, *el* is inserted between the root and the termination *chen*; as, *Buch, book*—*Büchelchen, a little book*; *Ring, ring*—*Ringelchen, a little ring*. The annex *chen* is also added to some plurals in *er* (§ 40), and to *Leute, people*; as, *Männerchen, little men*; *Dingerchen, little things, &c.*; *Leutchen, little people*. Some substantives terminating in *en*, and all those terminating in *e*, drop these endings when rendered diminutives; as, *ein Gärtchen, a little garden*; *ein Knäbchen, or Knäblein, a little boy*; from *Garten, Knabe*. The diminutive conveys often the idea of playful endearment; as, *Mütterchen, dear little mother*;—sometimes of contempt; as, *das Männchen, the little conceited man*; *ein süßes Herrchen, a young fop*.

§ 33. The sex is distinguished,

1. In many cases by appropriate words; as, *Bruder, brother*—*Schwester, sister*; *Mann, man*—*Weib, wife*; *Herr, master, lord*—*Frau, mistress, lady**; *Better, male cousin*—*Nichte, female cousin*;—and several others, which, having for the most part corresponding appropriate words in English, may easily be found in the dictionary.

2. In most other cases, however, the female sex is denoted by the ending *inn* (or *in*) being added to the masculine substantive; as, *ein Freund, a friend* (in general), or *a male friend*—*eine Freundin, a female friend*; *König, king*—*Königin, queen*; *ein Christ, a christian*—*eine Christin, a christian woman*; *ein Engländer, an Englishman*—*eine Engländerin, an Englishwoman*. The final *e* of the masculine is dropped in the feminine substantive; as, *ein Russe, a Russian*—*eine Russin, a Russian woman*. Many of these derivatives receive also the vowel inflection; as, *Graf, count*—*Gräfin, countess*; *ein Fran:ose, a Frenchman*—*eine Französin, a Frenchwoman*. Masculines ending in *er* generally drop one *er* in the feminine form; as, *der Zauberer, the enchanter*—*die Zauberin, the enchantress*.

* *Frau* is also used in opposition to *Mann*; but it is only applied to married women, and, in general, conveys an idea of respectability.

3. The following words derived from foreign languages have irregular terminations in the feminines :

Males.

Baron, *baron* ;
 Prinz, *prince* ;
 Acteur, *actor* ;
 Abt, *abbot* ;
 Canonicus, *canon* ;
 Gouverneur, *governor* ;

Females.

Baronesse (also Baroninn), *baroness*.
 Prinzessin, *princess*.
 Actrice, *actress*.
 Aebtissinn, *abbess*.
 Canonissin, *canoness*.
 Gouvernante, *governess*.

Obs. The title indicative of a man's office or occupation (which in German is also given to his wife) is rendered feminine by the addition of *inn*, even with such nouns as, in other cases, use different terminations, or appropriate words, for their feminines ; as, Rathsherr, *city senator, or alderman*—Rathsherrinn (and not Rathsfrau), *the wife of such a person* ; Hauptmann, *captain*—Hauptmänninn, *the wife of a captain* ; though the correspondent feminine nouns of Hausherr, *master of the house*, and Edelmann, *nobleman*, are Hausfrau, and Edelfrau ; because these names do not arise from the office of the husband. Hence there is a distinction between die Kammerherrinn, *the lady of a chamberlain*, and die Kammerfrau, *the waiting-gentlewoman at court* ; die Gesandtinn, *the lady of an ambassador*, and die Gesandte (see § 52), *a female ambassador* ; die Aebtinn, *the wife of a protestant abbot*, and die Aebtissinn, *the abbess*.—Landsmänninn, *a countrywoman, a native of one's own country*, is however used with reference to herself, and applied even to unmarried women.—The feminine of Freiherr, *Baron*, is designated indiscriminately by Freiherrinn, and Freifrau ; and often also by a third name, Freiinn.

4. In the following few cases the nouns denoting the males are derivatives of those denoting the female sex, or the species :

die Taube, <i>the pigeon</i> ;	der Tauber, <i>the cock pigeon</i> .
die Katze, <i>the cat</i> ;	der Kater, <i>the male cat</i> .
die Braut, <i>the bride</i> ;	der Bräutigam, <i>the bridegroom</i> .
die Wittwe, <i>the widow</i> ;	der Wittwer, <i>the widower</i> .
die Gans, <i>the goose</i> ;	der Gänserich, <i>the gander</i> .
die Ente, <i>the duck</i> ;	der Enterich, <i>the drake</i> .

5. With many names of species the sex is distinguished by adding some sexual attribute,—such as Männchen, *male*, and Weibchen, *female* ; Bock, *buck*, and Kuh, *cow* ; Hahn, *cock*, and Henne, *hen* : as, ein Nachtigallmännchen, *a male nightingale* ; der Rehebock, *the roebuck* ; die Hirschkuh, *the doe*. But very frequently the mere name of the species, if masculine, is, without any addition, also used to denote the male ; whilst the female is distinguished by the annex *inn*. Thus der Löwe, *the lion* ; der Hund,

the dog; *der Wolf, the wolf*, apply both to the male, or to one of the species without regard to sex; but *die Löwin, die Hündin, die Wölfin*, signify the females of those species. In a similar manner the names of male persons, of which the feminine is formed by *inn*, are also used to express the generical idea without any reference to sex; as, *Der Schauspieler muß die Natur studiren, the actor (actress not excluded) must study nature*; *Demuth ist dem Christen geboten, humility is commanded to the Christian*. Therefore, the plural of such masculines—as for instance, *die Nachbarn, the neighbours, die Freunde, the friends, &c.*—does not strictly exclude the females, unless explicitly contradistinguished by the feminines in *inn*; as, *alle Nachbarn und Nachbarinnen, all male and female neighbours*.

6. A few substantives are common to both sexes without any alteration, merely changing their gender according to the sex they denote:—*der Pathe, the godfather, or godson*—*die Pathe, the godmother, or goddaughter*; *der Mündel, the male ward**—*die Mündel, the female ward*; *der Waise, the male orphan**—*die Waise, the female orphan*.

But the following substantives are used for both sexes without even changing their gender: *der Bastard, the bastard*; *der Gast, the guest*; *das Kind, the child*; *der Mensch, the human being*; *der Kunde, the customer*; *die Person, the person*; *der Pilgrim, the pilgrim*; *der Zeuge, the witness*; and perhaps a few others. Further, most nouns in *ling*, as *der Findling, the foundling*; *der Liebling, the darling*; *der Zögling, the pupil*; *der Neuling, the novice, &c.*

THE GRAMMATICAL GENDER,

or the gender of nouns which are either destitute of sex, or in which the sex is not regarded, being the names of species, or of aggregates.

§ 34. Of the masculine gender are:—

1. Most substantives which have no servile terminations (§ 12); that is, which are either monosyllables, or dissyllables beginning with a prefix; as, *der Fluß, the river*; *der Stein, the stone*; *der Schnitt, the cut*; *der Betrag, the amount*; *der Verstand, the understanding*.

This, of course, applies also to all compounds; as, *der Anlaß, the occasion*; *der Aufenthalt, the abode, stay*; *der Sonnenuntergang, the sunset*; *der Gesichtskreis, the horizon, &c.*—the last component parts (which alone determine the

* Many authors, however, use *der Mündel* and *die Waise* for both sexes.

genders of compounds, see § 31) being, *Laß*, (*Enthalt*, *Gang*, *Kreis*).

This rule, which comprehends a very large portion of the German substantives, has, however, many exceptions; which, with the omission of those of rare occurrence, are given below*. To these must be added the monosyllable feminines and neuters mentioned in § 40. as forming their plural irregularly; and the substantives beginning with *ge*, which are, for the most part, neuter—see § 36, rule 3 †.

2. All substantives with the servile termination *ing*, or *ling*; as, *der Häring*, *the herring*; *der Frühling*, *the spring*; &c.—Except *das Messing*, *brass*.

3. All substantives terminating in *en*; as, *der Garten*, *the garden*; *der Degen*, *the sword*.

Except *a*) The diminutives in *chen* (§ 32, *Obs.*). *b*) Infinitives used as substantives (§ 36, *Obs.* 2.). *c*) The following neuters: *Almosen*, *alms*; *Becken*, *basin*; *Eisen*, *iron*; *Examen*, *examination*; *Füllen*, *coll*; *Kissen*, *cushion*; *Leinen*, *linen*; *Omen*, *omen*; *Phänomen*, *phenomenon*; *Wappen*, *coat of arms*; *Zeichen*, *sign*.—No feminine ends in *en*.

4. Most substantives terminating in *el*; as, *der Hügel*, *the hill*; *der Löffel*, *the spoon*.

* The following are feminine: *Andacht* (but *der Bedacht*, *der Verdacht*), *Anstalt*, *Antwort*, *Art*, *Bahn*, *Bai*, *Beicht*, *Birn*, *Brunst*, *Brut*, *Bucht*, *Burg*, *Ehur*, *Eur*, *Durchlaucht*, *Einfalt*, *Fahrt*, *Flur*, *Fluth*, *Form*, *Fracht*, *Frist*, *Fuhr*, *Furcht*, *Gegenwart*, *Gicht*, *Gier*, *Gluth*, *Gunst*, *Hast*, *Huld*, *Jacht*, *Jagd*, *Kost*, *Last*, *List*, *Milch*, *Milz*, *Nachricht* (but *der Bericht*), *Nachtigall*, *Norm*, *Nothdurst*, *Pein*, *Pest*, *Pflicht*, *Post*, *Pracht*, *Qual*, *Rast*, *Rückkehr* (but *der Verkehr*), *Ruhr*, *Saat*, *Scham*, *Schar*, *Schau*, *Scheu* (but *der Abscheu*) *Schicht*, *Schlacht*, *Schlucht*, *Schmach*, *Schrift*, *Schuld*, *Schur*, *Sicht*, *Spreu*, *Spur*, *Stirn*, *Streu*, *Sucht*, *That*, *Thür*, *Tour*, *Tracht*, *Trift*, *Uhr*, *Unbill*, *Vernunft*, *Verzicht*, *Wahl*, *Wehr*, *Welt*, *Willkühr*, *Wucht*, *Wuth*, *Zahl*, *Zeit*, *Zier*, *Zucht*.

The following are neuter: *Al*, *Augenmerk*, *Beet*, *Beil*, *Bein*, *Bested*, *Bier*, *Blech*, *Blei*, *Blut*, *Boot*, *Brod*, *Eis*, *Erz*, *Fell*, *Fest*, *Fleisch*, *Fließ*, *Garn*, *Gas*, *Gleis*, *Glück*, *Gold*, *Grän*, *Groß*, *Haar*, *Harz*, *Heer*, *Heil*, *Heu*, *Hirn*, *Jahr*, *Joch*, *Kinn*, *Knie*, *Kreuz*, *Laub* (*Jolinge*), *Lob*, *Loos*, *Loth*, *Matz*, *Maß*, *Mehl*, *Meer*, *Moos*, *Moos*, *Nez*, *Niet*, *Obst*, *Del*, *Dhr*, *Paar*, *Pech*, *Pferd*, *Pfund*, *Pult*, *Quart*, *Reh*, *Reich*, *Rieß*, *Rohr*, *Ros*, *Sals*, *Schaf*, *Schach*, *Schiff*, *Schmalz*, *Schmeer*, *Schod*, *Schrot*, *Schwein*, *Seil*, *Siek*, *Spiel*, *Stroh*, *Stück*, *Tau*, *Thier*, *Thor*, *Urtheil*, *Verbot*, *Verdeck*, *Verhör*, *Wich*, *Wack*, *Werft*, *Werg*, *Wert*, *Wild*, *Wildbret*, *Zelt*, *Zeug*, *Ziel*, *Zinn*. See also § 36. *Obs.* 3.

† Notwithstanding the great number of exceptions, this rule will be found highly useful: it contains about six hundred simple nouns of common occurrence; and, considering the very great number of compounds of which the last part is a monosyllable, it may be safely asserted, that the gender of several thousand substantives is ascertained by this rule and its exceptions.

Except *a*) Nouns beginning with *ge* or ending in *sel*, or in *tel* if importing a numeral fraction; which are all of the neuter gender (§ 36, rules 1, 3 and 4). *b*) The following neuters: *Capitel, chapter*; *Exempel, example*; *Fertel, farrow*; *Fägel, barrel*; *Miratel, miracle*; *Mittel, means*; *Orakel, oracle*; *Scharmüßel, skirmish*; *Segel, sail*; *Siegel, seal*; *Uebel, evil*; *Wiesel, weasel*. *c*) The list of feminines subjoined at the foot of this page*.

5. The greater part of the substantives terminating in *er*; as, *der Kummer, the grief*; *der Hammer, the hammer*.—But this rule, too, has a long list of exceptions, which is given below †.

See § 37, rules 3, 4, which also contain some exceptions to the preceding rules.

§ 35. Of the feminine gender are:—

1. All substantives with the servile terminations *heit*, *keit*, *schaft*, *ung*, and *ei* (or *ey*); as, *die Weisheit, wisdom*; *die Wichtigkeit, importance*; *die Freundschaft, friendship*; *die Hoffnung, hope*; *die Fischerei, the fishery*.—Except *das Petschaft, the seal*; and *der Hornung, the old name of the month of February*.

2. All substantives terminating in *e*; as, *die Wiese, the meadow*; *die Rose, the rose*; *die Güte, goodness*.

Except *a*) Most substantives with the prefix *ge* (see rule 3, § 36). *b*) Adjectives in their neuter gender used as substantives; as, *das Schöne*,

* *Achsel, Amse'*, *Angel*, *Aurikel*, *Bibel*, *Clausel*, *Cymbel*, *Dattel*, *Deichsel*, *Distel*, *Drossel*, *Eichel*, *Epistel*, *Fabel*, *Fadel*, *Falbel*, *Fibel*, *Fiebel*, *Fistel*, *Floßtel*, *Formel*, *Fuchtel*, *Gabel*, *Geißel*, *Gondel*, *Gurgel*, *Hechel*, *Hummel*, *Hyperbel*, *Insel*, *Kabel*, *Kachel*, *Kanzel*, *Kapsel*, *Kartoffel*, *Klingel*, *Kugel*, *Kuppel*, *Mandel*, *Mispel*, *Mistel*, *Morchel*, *Muschel*, *Nadel*, *Nessel*, *Nestel*, *Nudel*, *Orgel*, *Pappel*, *Parabel*, *Partikel*, *Ranunkel*, *Raspel*, *Regel*, *Runzel*, *Schachtel*, *Schaukel*, *Schaukel*, *Schindel*, *Schüssel*, *Semmel*, *Sichel*, *Spindel*, *Staffel*, *Stoppel*, *Striegel*, *Tafel*, *Larantel*, *Troddel*, *Trommel*, *Trüffel*, *Wachtel*, *Waffel*, *Weichsel*, *Windel*, *Wurzel*, *Zottel*, *Zwiebel*.

† Of the feminine gender are: *Ader*, *Aelster*, *Ammer*, *Auster*, *Blatter*, *Butter*, *Dauer*, *Eßader*, *Faser*, *Feder*, *Feier*, *Fiber*, *Folter*, *Halfter*, *Heuer*, *Holfter*, *Kammer*, *Kelter*, *Klafter*, *Klammer*, *Klapper*, *Lauer*, *Leber*, *Letter*, *Leher*, *Marter*, *Maser*, *Rauer*, *Retapher*, *Ratter*, *Rummer*, *Dyer*, *Order*, *Otter*, *Rhabarber*, *Rüster*, *Scheuer*, *Schleuder*, *Schuster*, *Trauer*, *Wesper*, *Wiper*, *Wimper*, *Zaser*, *Zeder*, *Ziffer*, *Zither*.

The following are neuter: *Abenteuer*, *Alter*, *Barometer*, *Guter*, *Fenster*, *Feuer*, *Fieber*, *Fuber*, *Futter*, *Gatter*, *Gitter*, *Kloster*, *Kupfer*, *Lager*, *Laster*, *Leder*, *Luber*, *Walter*, *Wieder*, *Münster*, *Muster*, *Dyfer*, *Orchester*, *Pflaster*, *Pulver*, *Register*, *Ruber*, *Silber*, *Theater*, *Thermometer*, *Ufer*, *Ungeheuer*, *Wasser*, *Wetter*, *Wunder*, *Zimmer*. Besides those beginning with the prefix *ge*.

the beautiful (see § 52). c) The few following substantives: *das Auge, the eye*; *das Beschläge, brass edgings*; *das Ende, the end*; *das Erbe, the inheritance*; *das Finale, the finale*; *das Interesse, the interest*; *das Personale, the members of a body collectively*; *der Käse, the cheese*; and the few names of animals mentioned in § 44; as, *der Affe, the ape*, &c. (See also *Obs.* 2, § 45).

Obs. Most feminines of this, as well as most of the monosyllable feminines of the foregoing section, denote abstract ideas; but the feminines in *el* and *er* (see the notes of the preceding page) are, for the most part, names of things.

§ 36. Of the neuter gender are:—

1. The few substantives terminating in *thum*, *sal*, or *sel*; as, *das Christenthum, Christendom*; *das Herzogthum, the dukedom or dutchy*; *das Schicksal, the fate*; *das Räthsel, the riddle*.—Except *der Reichthum, the riches*; *der Irrthum, the error*; *der Stöpsel, the cork*.

2. The greater part of the nouns terminating in *niß*; as, *das Geheimniß, the secret*; *das Gedächtniß, the memory*.

Except the following, which are generally used in the feminine gender: *Bedrängniß, grievance, distress*; *Befugniß, competence, authority*; *Bekümmerniß, trouble*; *Besorgniß, apprehension*; *Betrübniß, affliction*; *Bewandtniß, condition, conjuncture*; *Empfängniß, conception*; *Erkenntniß, recognition* (but *das Bekenntniß, confession*); *Erlaubniß, permission*; *Fäulniß, putridity*; *Finsterniß, darkness*; *Kenntniß, knowledge*; *Kümmerniß, care, grief*; *Säumniß, delay*; *Verdammniß, damnation*; *Wildniß, wilderness*.

Obs. 1. Several authors use also some others of this termination in the feminine, which, however, are more commonly found in the neuter gender. With *Begegniß, occurrence*; *Verderbniß, corruption*; *Verfümmniß, neglect*, usage is not decided, these nouns having as often the feminine as the neuter gender.—No masculine ends in *niß*.

3. The substantives beginning with the prefix *ge*; as, *das Gemälde, the picture*; *das Gespräch, the conversation*; *das Gewissen, the conscience*; *das Gebirge, the chain of mountains*.

Except a) The following masculines: *Gebrauch, use, custom*; *Gedanke, thought*; *Gefallen, favour, pleasure*; *Gehalt, salary*; *Geheersam, obedience*; *Gelass, house-room*; *Genuß, enjoyment*; *Geruch, smell*; *Ge-*

sang, song; Geschmack, taste; Gestank, bad smell; Gewinn, or Gewinnst, profit. b) The following feminines: Geberde, gesture; Gebühr, fee, duty; Geburt, birth; Geduld, patience; Gefahr, danger; Gemeinde, community; Genüge, sufficiency; Geschichte, history; Geschwulst, swelling, tumour; Gestalt, figure, shape; Gewalt, force; Gewähr, security—and all those terminating in heit, feit, schaft, and ung; which have the gender of their termination; as, die Gelegenheit, the opportunity; die Gesellschaft, the company; die Genesung, the recovery, &c.

4. All diminutives; all nouns in tel denoting numeral fractions; and the names of the letters of the alphabet; as, das Städtchen, the little town (see § 32, Obs.); das Viertel, the quarter; das Achtel, the eighth part; ein großes A, a capital A; das deutsche Z, the German Z.

5. All words used as substantives, though properly belonging to other parts of speech; as, das Weim und das Aber, the If and the But; sein liebes Ich, his dear self; das Lebewohl, the farewell.

Obs. 2. Hence all substantives that are in form not different from infinitives of the same root, are of the neuter gender; probably from their having been originally infinitives used as substantives, although many of them have now a more extended signification than the verb, and some are even used concretely; as, das Versehen, the mistake; das Ansehen, the respect, consideration; das Leben, the life; das Daseyn, the existence; das Vermögen, the ability, the property; das Essen, the eating, the dish; das Mittagessen, the dinner; das Wesen, the being (from the obsolete infinitive, wesen, to be); das Schreiben, the writing; the letter, &c.—the verbs of these substantives being versehen, to mistake; ansehen, to look at, &c.

The following, however, are of the masculine gender, according to the analogy of their terminations (§ 34, rule 3), though they are exactly like the infinitives of nearly the same, or a kindred import: der Braten, the roast meat; Brocken, morsel, crumb; Gefallen, obligation; Graben, ditch; Husten, cough; Nutzen, use, profit; Schaden, injury; Schatten, shade, shadow; Schluchzen, hiccup; Schnupfen, cold in the head; Tropfen, drop; Zapfen, spigot.—If these words have the neuter gender, they are merely infinitives used substantively; as, das Braten, the roasting; das Husten, the coughing, &c.

Obs. 3. For the same reason, those substantives are neuter which, in form, are like adverbs and uninflected adjectives of similar signification; as, das Recht, the right; das Fett, the fat; das Wohl, the welfare; das Uebel, the evil; das Elend, the misery; das Abendroth, the evening

red; das Berliner Blau, *Prussian blue*, &c. Except der Ernst, *seriousness*; der Gehorsam, *the obedience*; der Gram, *the grief*; die Scheu, *shyness, awe*; and perhaps a few others.

Obs. 4. Numbers used as substantives are also neuter, agreeably to the above rule; as, das Hundert, *the hundred*; das Jahr fünf, *the space of five years*; das Eins*, *the one*. But the names of written figures, or the number of pips on playing cards, are feminine; as, eine Eins, *a figure of one*; eine Römische Fünf, *a Roman five*; die Carreau Sieben, *the seven of diamonds*; die Null, *the cipher*.

Note.—Respecting the monosyllable neuters and those in *er*, see the exceptions to rules 1 and 5 of § 34.

§ 37. SUBSTANTIVES OF MORE THAN ONE GENDER.

1. With some substantives usage varies in regard to the gender; as, der or das Chor, *the choir, the place where the choristers are seated* (when signifying *chorus*, it is generally masculine); der or das Dotter, *the yolk of an egg*; der or die Flitter, *the spangle*; der or das Friesel, *the purples*; der or die Haspel, *the reel, yarnwindles*; der or das Heft, *the handle*, also *a few sheets of paper stitched together*; die or das Mandel, *a number of 15* (when signifying *an almond*, it is always feminine); der or die Scheitel, *the crown of the head*; der or, more generally, das Schilf, *the reed, rush*; das or die Trübsal, *affliction*; der or das Ungestüm, *impetuosity*; der or das Wachsthum, *increase*; der or die Wimpel, *the pendant, the streamer*; der or das Zepter, *the sceptre*; der or das Zoll, *an inch* (when signifying *toll*, it is always masculine); and probably a few others. With these nouns the student can commit no fault in adopting that gender which accords with the preceding rules.

2. Other substantives, which are indiscriminately used with the termination *e*, or *en*, or without any servile termination, vary their gender accordingly; as, die Aule, and der Aul, *the awl*; der Backen, and die Backe, *the cheek*; das Eck (as in Dreieck, *the triangle*), and die Ecke, *the corner*; der Falz, and die Falze, *the fold, notch*; die Flocke, and der Flocken, *the flake*; der or das Juwel, and die Juwelle, *the jewel*; der Kolben, and die Kolbe, *the butt end*; die Leiste, and der Leist or Leisten, *the ledge*; der Mittwoch, and die Mittwoche, *Wednesday*; die Pfoste, and der Pfost or Pfosten, *the post*; der Pfriem, and die Pfrieme, *the piercer, awl*; der Quast, and die Quaste, *the tassel*; der Quell, and die Quelle, *the well*; der Riß, and die Riße, *the cleft*; der Spalt, and die Spalte,

* Die Glocke sie donnert ein mächtiges Eins, *the clock pealed forth a thundering [note of] One.*—GÖTTE.

the crevice; der Zacken, or der Zack (as in Dreizack, the trident), and die Zacke, the prong.

Obs. 1. The following, which are by some grammarians enumerated in this list, are more commonly used as distinct words, in their different forms, and distinguished thus: *der Zins, the rent—die Zinse (or more commonly in the plural, die Zinsen), the interest of money; der Ruin, destruction—die Ruine, the ruin, the broken remains of a building; der Lorbeer (or Lorber), the laurel—die Lorbeere, the laurel-berry.*

3. The following nouns vary their gender according to the difference in their signification: *die Armuth, poverty—das Armuth, the poor collectively; der Band, the volume—das Band, the ribbon, tie; der Buckel, the back, hump—die Buckel, the stud; der Bund, the confederacy—das Bund, the bundle; der Gegentheil, the adverse party—das Gegentheil, the contrary; das Gift, the poison—die Gift (in Mitgift), the gift; der Haft, the clasp, the hold—die Haft (but der Verhaft), the arrest; der Hut (or Hü), the hat—die Huth, heed; der Raper, a privateer—die Raper, caper; der Kiefer, the jaw—die Kiefer, the pine-tree; die Lehn, the possession by feudal right—das Lehn, the estate held in fee; die Leiter, the ladder—der Leiter (as in Ableiter), the conductor; der Mangel, want—die Mangel, a rolling press; die Mark, the mark, boundary—das Mark, marrow; der Marsch, the march—die Marsch, the fen; der Mast, the (ship's) mast—die Mast, mast, fruit; das Messer, the knife—der Messer (as in Durchmesser), meter; der Pack, the bale—das Pack, a pack, rabble; der Schild, the shield—das Schild, the sign of a house; der Schwulst, bombast—die Schwulst, or rather Geschwulst, the swelling; der Scrupel, a scruple, doubt—das Scrupel, a scruple, weight; der See, the lake—die See, the sea; der Sprosse, the shoot—die Sprosse, the step of a ladder; das Steuer, the rudder—die Steuer, the tax; der Stift, a peg or bolt—das Stift, charitable institution; der Verdienst, the profit—das Verdienst, merit; der Vorwand, the pretext—die Vorwand, the front wall; der Wachs (as in Anwachs, Zuwachs), growth—das Wachs, wax.*

See also *Obs. 2 & 4, § 36, and § 52*, which afford many other instances of nouns alike in form, but different in gender and signification.

Obs. 2. Several substantives denoting both persons and things, have in the former signification the natural gender according to their sex, and in the latter, follow the rules and exceptions of the grammatical gender (§ 34 to 39); as, *der Kunde, the customer—die Kunde, knowledge; der Heide, the heathen—die Heide, the heath; der Thor, the fool—das Thor, the gate; der Geißel, the hostage—die Geißel, the scourge; der Erbe, the heir—das Erbe, the inheritance; der Gespieler, the playfellow—das Gespieler, incessant playing; der Legat, the legate—das Legat (§ 38, rule 4), the legacy.*

4. Here may also be noticed a few substantives which change their gender in certain compounds, contrary to rule (§ 31):—*Muth, courage, mind, and most of its compounds are masculine; as, der Hochmuth, pride; der Edelmuth, noblemindedness, &c.: but the following are feminine:*

Demuth, *humility*; Großmuth, *generosity*; Kleinmuth (sometimes also masculine), *pusillanimity*; Langmuth, *forbearance*; Sanftmuth, *meekness*; Schwermuth, *melancholy*; and Wehmuth, *sadness*.—Theil, *part*, and most compounds with this noun, are masculine; as, der Vortheil, *the advantage*; der Antheil, *the share*, &c.: yet Erbtheil, *hereditary portion*; Bordertheil, *fore-part*; Hintertheil, *hind-part*; and Gegentheil, *contrary*, are neuter.—The compounds Macherlohn, *pay for making*; Arbeitslohn, *wages*; and Tagelohn, *day wages*, have more generally the neuter gender, though Lohn, *hire*, *reward*, and its other compounds are masculine. And lastly, Neunauge, *lamprey*, is feminine, though das Auge is neuter. A few others, as die Scheu, *shyness*, and der Abscheu, *disgust*, &c. have been noticed in the exceptions, § 34.

§ 38. THE GENDER OF FOREIGN SUBSTANTIVES.

Nouns adopted from foreign languages retain, for the most part, their original gender. But as, without mentioning the great number of exceptions, the general learner cannot be supposed to be acquainted with the original gender of all foreign words, the following rules will be found useful; particularly the third, which is most comprehensive.

1. Those which in German have become monosyllables, or which end in *e*, *ei*, *el* (unaccented, see page 34.), *en*, *er*, must be arranged under the rules of §§ 34 and 35; as, der Punkt, *the point*; die Periode; die Polizei, *the police*; der Tempel; der Zirkel, *the circle*; der Orden, *the order*; der Körper, *the body*. The nouns deviating from these rules, as die Form, die Fabel, das Theater, &c. have been enumerated in the list of exceptions.

2. Nouns terminating in *an*, *ant*, *ent* (not in *ment*, see below, rule 4), *st*, *uß*, are of the masculine gender; as, der Orkan, *the hurricane*; der Foliant, *the folio*; der Consonant; der Orient; der Contrast; der Arrest; der Enthusiasmus, *enthusiasm*; der Luxus, *luxury*, &c.—Except the following, which are neuter: Organ; Porzellan, *porcelain*; Contingent; Patent; Präsent; Talent.

3. Nouns terminating in *ie*, *ion*, *if*, *ur*, *tät*, *nz*, are feminine; as, die Philosophie, die Religion, die Mathematik, die Natur, die Universität, die Correspondenz, die Provinz.—Except, der Arsenik; das Genie, *genius*; der Scorpion; der Purpur, *the purple*; der Azur.

4. Those terminating in *ier*, *ment*, and *ma*; *em*, *om*, and *um*, are of the neuter gender; as, das Papier, *the paper*; das Compliment; das Element; das Thema; das System; das Symptom; das Datum; das Collegium.—Except die Manier, *the manner*.

Also most of those terminating in *al*, *at*, *ell*, *et*, *il* (or *ett*, *ill*, see § 24), and *iv*, are neuter; as, das Ideal; das Signal; das Quadrat, *the square*; das Duell; das Castell; das Defret; das Duett; das Fossil; das Crocodill; das Archiv.

Except der Canal; der Choral; die Moral; der Opal; der Vocal, a *drinking-cup*; der Ornat, *decorations, dress*; der Tractat, *the treaty*; der Magistrat, *the magistracy*; der Flanell, *flannel*; der Comet; der Planet; der Magnet; die Minuet; and all grammatical terms ending in *al* and *iv*, which, with the exception of das Substantiv and das Abjektiv, are masculine; as, der Nominativ, der Subjunctiv, der Dual, der Vocal, &c.

§ 39. THE GENDER OF GEOGRAPHICAL PROPER NAMES.

1. The proper names of countries and places are of the neuter gender; as, das Glückliche Arabien, *Arabia Felix*; das schöne Italien, *beautiful Italy*; das große London, *great London*; das alte Rom, *ancient Rome*.

Except names of countries terminating in *ei* or *ie*; as, die Wallachei, *Wallachia*; die Türkei, *Turkey*; die Normandie, *Normandy*; die Picardie, *Picardy*. Further, die Grimm, *Crimea*; die Havannah; die Dauphinee, *Dauphiny*; die Levante; die Moldau, *Moldavia*; der Peloponnes, *the Peloponnesus*; der Haag, *the Hague*; die Schweiz, *Switzerland*; die Tyrol; die Lausitz, *Lusatia*; die Pfalz, *the Palatinate*; die Mark, *a county in the north of Germany*; der Rönigstein; and a few other districts and places in Germany of less note.

2. Most names of foreign rivers not terminating in *e* are of the masculine gender; as, der Euphrat, *the Euphrates*; der Ganges; der Indus; der Nil, *the Nile*; der Senegal; der Tago, *the Tagus*; der Ebro; der Mississippi.—Except die Tiber.

But most rivers in Germany and its borders, as well as all those terminating in *e*, are feminine; as, die Donau, *the Danube*; die Weichsel, *the Vistula*; die Mosel, *the Moselle*; die Themse, *the Thames*; die Seine.—Except der Rhein, *the Rhine*; der Main, *the Maine*; der Neckar; der Lech; der Lethe, *Lethe*.

The names of the rivers of Russia are feminine if ending in a vowel, and masculine if ending in a consonant; as, die Dwina, die Rewa, die Wolga, &c. Der Niemen, der Ural, der Don, der Pruth, &c.

Obs. The names of seas, gulfs, lakes, &c. being generally attended by an appellative (*See, Meer, Meerbusen, &c.*), adopt, of course, its gender; as, die Nordsee, *the North Sea*; das Eismeer, *the Frozen Ocean*; der Venetianische Meerbusen, *the Venetian Gulf*; der Genfer-See, *the lake of Geneva*. The few names which are without any appellative, have the masculine gender: der Sund, *the Sound*; der Belt; der Hellsespont, &c.—Except das Cattagat.

3. The names of mountains are masculine (probably the masculine appellative *Berg* being understood); as, der Vesuv, *Vesuvius*; der Simpla; der Brocken; der Helikon; der Harz.

The preceding rules, it is hoped, will leave the gender of but an inconsiderable number of nouns untouched; which are best left to the learner's own observation.

On the origin of Gender, as well as on its application to nouns destitute of sex, some observations will be offered at the end of the Etymology.

FORMATION OF THE NOMINATIVE PLURAL.

Most substantives form their nominative plural by the addition of some letter or letters (e, en, n, or er); to which many nouns add, moreover, the vowel inflection: some form it solely by the vowel inflection. But in a great number of nouns the nominative plural is like that of the singular.

§ 40. Concerning the addition of letters we have the following general rule:—

Most substantives of the feminine gender form the nominative plural by adding *en* to that of the singular; and most masculines and neuters by adding *e*: as,

<i>Singular</i> die Frau, <i>the woman,</i>	<i>Plural</i> die Frauen.
die Tugend, <i>the virtue,</i>	die Tugenden.
die Uhr, <i>the watch,</i>	die Uhren.
der Berg, <i>the mountain,</i>	die Berge.
der Monat, <i>the month,</i>	die Monate.
das Pferd, <i>the horse,</i>	die Pferde.
das Jahr, <i>the year,</i>	die Jahre.

Exceptions.

I. All substantives ending in *e*, *el*, *en*, *er*, or *lein*, drop the *e* of inflection through the whole declension; consequently, the feminines of those terminations add only *n* in the plural, the number of syllables remaining the same as in the singular;—and the masculines and neuters add no letter*, and, therefore, unless distinguished by the vowel inflection (which is the case only with twenty-four masculines and the neuter *Kloster*, see § 41), the nominative plural is exactly like that of the singular; as, *die Schwester, the sister*; *die Gabel, the fork*; *die Blume, the flower*; plur. *die Schwestern, die Gabeln, die Blumen—der Schneider, the tailor*; *der Engel, the angel*; *der Degen, the sword*; *das*

* The masculines in *e*, however, and a few in *el* and *er*, add *n*—see *a*) and *c*) of the third exception.

Ruder, *the oar*; das Gemälde, *the picture*; das Fräulein, *the young lady*;—plur. die Schneider, die Engel, die Degen, die Ruder, die Gemälde, die Fräulein.

Obs. 1. The terminations of this exception are servile, and therefore unaccented:—*lein*, we may observe, belongs only to diminutives. This exception includes also foreign words with the final syllables, *e*, *el*, *en*, *er*; however *der Charakter*; das Phänomen, *phenomenon*; and a few neuters in *el* with the accent on the last syllable, as *Cartel**; *Carroussel**, *carrousal*, &c. all which add *e*: *Charactere*, *Phänomene*, *Cartele*, &c. Of the nouns in *ier*, those in which *er* forms a syllable of itself, as *Patricier*, *patri-cian*; *Spanier*, *Spaniard* (§ 11), belong to the exception; all the others, as *Officier*, *officer*; *Papier*, *paper*, &c. the *e* being mute, and, consequently, the last syllable being *ir* and not *er*, cannot belong to the exception, but add *e* according to rule. Nor can the nouns in *er*, or *ie* if forming one syllable (§ 11, rule 2), be understood as falling under this exception; for though, generally, the plural receives no additional vowel (§ 12, *Obs. 2*), yet these terminations always form two syllables in it; as, *die Arme*, *army*; *die Theorien*, *theory*; das Knie, *knee*;—plur. *Arme-en*, *Theori-en*, *Knie-e* (see § 12, *Obs. 2*); whilst the nouns of the exception invariably have the same quantity of syllables in both numbers.

Obs. 2. This exception originated probably in the tendency of the liquids (*l*, *m*, *n*, *r*), if between two unaccented *e*'s, to drop one of them; as we shall have occasion to notice in the adjectives and the verbs (see also § 29, *Obs. 2*): and, indeed, many masculines and neuters ending in *el*, *en*, or *er*, had in Old German the regular plural in *e*.

II. Of the feminines are further excepted:

a.) Mutter, *mother*, and Tochter, *daughter*, which make the plural Mütter and Töchter.

b.) The few feminines terminating in *niß* (page 66), which add *e* in the plural; as, Besorgniß, *anxiety*; pl. Besorgnisse.

c.) The subjoined 34 feminines, all which add *e*, and, with the exception of *Leimwand*, inflect the vowel; as, Art, Braut; plur. Aerte, Bräute:

* Very often these words are written with *ll*, *Cartell*, *Carrousell*, &c. (see § 24, rule 4.)

Ausflucht, <i>evasion</i> .	Hand, <i>hand</i> .	Maus, <i>mouse</i> .
Art, <i>axe</i> .	Haut, <i>skin</i> .	Nacht, <i>night</i> .
Bank, <i>bench</i> *.	Kluft, <i>cleft</i> .	Nath, or Naht, <i>seam</i> .
Braut, <i>bride</i> .	Kraft, <i>force</i> .	Nuß, <i>nut</i> .
Brust, <i>breast</i> .	Kuh, <i>cow</i> .	Sau, <i>sow</i> †.
Faust, <i>fist</i> .	Kunst, <i>art</i> .	Schnur, <i>string</i> .
Feuersbrunst, <i>conflagration</i> .	Laus, <i>louse</i> .	Stadt, <i>town</i> .
Frucht, <i>fruit</i> .	Leinwand, <i>linen</i> .	Statt, <i>place</i> .
Gans, <i>goose</i> .	Luft, <i>air</i> .	Wand, <i>wall</i> .
Geschwulst, <i>swelling</i> .	Luft, <i>pleasure</i> .	Wurst, <i>sausage</i> .
Grust, <i>vault, tomb</i> .	Macht†, <i>power</i> .	Zunft, <i>guild, corporation</i> .
	Magd, <i>maid</i> .	

Obs. 3. The plural of *Statt* is found only in compounds; as, *Bettstatt*, *Freistatt*, &c. The feminines *Angst*, *anxiety*; *Noth*, *distress*; and *Kunst*, *the coming*, belong also to this list; but the plural of the former two occurs only in the dative, in the expressions, in *Angsten*, in *Nöthen*, and the latter is found only in compounds which are seldom used in the plural; as, *Ankunft*, *arrival*; *Zusammenkunft*, *meeting*, &c.; and in *Einkünfte*, *income*, which has no singular.

III. The third exception consists of masculines and neuters which add *en*, or *er*, instead of *e*.

1.) The following add *en* (or *n*, if ending in *e*, *el*, *er*—see *Obs. 2.*):—

a.) All substantives that add *en* in the genitive singular (see § 44, rule third); and, consequently, also all the masculines in *e*, with the only exception of *Käse*, *cheese*.

b.) Nouns terminating in *er*, if they designate persons; as, *Doctor*, *Professor*; plur. *Doctoren*, *Professoren*. Except *Major*, *Factor*, *agent* ||, which have the plural *Majore*, *Factore*. Those which do not denote persons follow the general rule; as, *Castor*, *a beaver*; *Rumor*; plur. *Castore*, *Rumore*.

Obs. 4. Nouns from the Latin designating objects peculiar to the ancients, such as certain magistrates, officers, or beings of their mythology,

* In the import of *bank* its plural is regular, *Banken*.

† *Dynmacht*, *swoon*, and *Wollmacht*, *power of attorney*, have the regular plural in *en*.

‡ If importing the female of a wild boar its plural is regular.

|| *Factor* signifying *multiplicator* in arithmetic, has in the plural *Factoren*. It may also be observed, that those nouns in *er* which add *en* in the plural, always accent the penultimate (see § 20); whilst in the others the accent remains always on *er*; as, *Majo'r*, *Rumo'r*: hence *Facto'r*, *agent*—*Facto'r*, *multiplicator*. Those in *o'r* are probably borrowed immediately from the French.

&c. also add *en*; as, Consul, Tribun, Augur, Satyr, Faun, Dämon, &c. plur. Consulen or Consuln (also in the modern sense of commercial officers), Tribunen, Auguren, &c. A few Latin nouns in *al*, or *il*, add *ien*; as, Mineral, Regal or Regale, Fossil;—plur. Mineralien, Regalien, &c. Capital, *capital*, makes generally Capitalien if referring to money, and Capitälcr, or Capitale, if referring to columns. See also § 42. *Obs.*

c.) The subjoined list:—

Masculines.

Bauer, <i>peasant</i> .	Nachbar, <i>neighbour</i>	Staat, <i>state</i> .
Diamant, <i>diamond</i> .	(pl. Nachbarn).	Strahl, <i>beam, ray</i> .
Impost, <i>impost</i> .	Schmerz, <i>pain</i> .	Unterthan, <i>subject</i> .
Rast, <i>mast</i> .	See, <i>lake</i> .	Vorfahr, <i>predecessor</i> .
Russel, <i>muscle</i> .	Sporn, <i>spur</i> .	Zierath, <i>ornament</i> .

Neuters.

Auge, <i>eye</i> .	Ende, <i>end</i> .	Herz, <i>heart</i> .	Leid, <i>suffering</i> .
Bett, <i>bed</i> *.	Hemde, <i>shirt</i> .	Insect, <i>insect</i> .	Ohr, <i>ear</i> .

Obs. 5. With some nouns usage varies: the masculines *Better, cousin*; *Gevatter, godfather*; *Stachel, sting*; *Stiefel, boot*; *Pantoffel, slipper*; add *n* in the plural; as, die *Bettern*, die *Gevattern*, &c.; or remain unvaried,—die *Better*, die *Gevatter*, &c. *Thron, throne*, and *Affect, emotion*, add *e*, or *en*. Those substantives which are used in more than one gender (§ 37) vary their plural accordingly; as, der *Flitter, the spangle*, plur. die *Flitter*—or die *Flitter*, plur. die *Flittern*; der *Riß, the crack*, plur. die *Risse*—or die *Risse*, plur. die *Rigen*. Of *Quell, fountain*, and *Juwel, jewel*, the plural of the feminine gender alone is in use, viz. *Quellen* and *Juwelen*. See also *Obs. 2*, § 46, and *Obs. 2* and 3, § 47.

2.) The subjoined list of masculines and neuters, and all substantives terminating in *thum*, add *er* with the vowel inflection; but it must be observed, that those of more than one syllable inflect the vowel of the last only; as, das *Lamm*, der *Wald*; plur. die *Lämmer*, die *Wälder*: das *Alterthum, antiquity*; das *Hospital*; das *Kamisol*; das *Parlament*;—plur. die *Alterthümer*, die *Hospitäler*, die *Kamisöler*, die *Parlamentcr*.

Masculines.

Geist, <i>spirit</i> .	Leib, <i>body</i> .	Vormund, <i>guardian</i> .
Gott, <i>God</i> .	Mann †, <i>man</i> .	Wald, <i>forest</i> .
Hundsfott, <i>mean rascal</i> .	Rand, <i>edge</i> .	Wurm ‡, <i>worm</i> .

* Some use the plural *Betten* only, if signifying *feather-beds*, or the parts of bedding; but in the sense of *beds* they say *Bettcr*.

† The ancient plural *Wannen* is used sometimes by poets in reference to the vassals of a lord.

‡ In elegant writing it has often the regular plural *Würme*.

Neuters.

Aaß, <i>carriage</i> .	Gespens, <i>spectre</i> .	Licht, <i>light, candle</i> †.
Amt, <i>office</i> .	Gewand, <i>garment</i> .	Lied, <i>song</i> .
Augenlid, <i>eye-lid</i> .	Glas, <i>glass</i> .	Loch, <i>hole</i> .
Bad, <i>bath</i> .	Glied, <i>limb</i> .	Maul, <i>mouth</i> .
Band*, <i>ribbon</i> .	Grab, <i>grave</i> .	Mensch, <i>wench</i> .
Bild, <i>image</i> .	Gras, <i>grass</i> .	Nest, <i>nest</i> .
Blatt, <i>leaf</i> .	Gut, <i>good</i> .	Parlament, <i>parliament</i> .
Bret, <i>board</i> .	Haupt, <i>head</i> .	Pfand, <i>pledge</i> .
Buch, <i>book</i> .	Haus, <i>house</i> .	Rad, <i>wheel</i> .
Dach, <i>roof</i> .	Heiz, <i>wood</i> .	Regiment, <i>regiment</i> .
Haus, <i>deuce</i> (at cards).	Horn, <i>horn</i> .	Reis, <i>twig</i> .
Dorf, <i>village</i> .	Hospital or	Rind, <i>neat</i> .
Ei, <i>egg</i> .	Spital, } <i>hospital</i> .	Schild, <i>sign of an inn</i> .
Fach, <i>department</i> .	Huhn, <i>fowl</i> .	Schloß, <i>lock, castle</i> .
Faß, <i>cask</i> .	Kalb, <i>calf</i> .	Schwert, <i>sword</i> .
Feld, <i>field</i> .	Kamisol, <i>jacket</i> .	Stift, <i>institution</i> .
Geld, <i>money</i> .	Kind, <i>child</i> .	Thal, <i>dale</i> .
Gemach, <i>apartment</i> .	Kleid, <i>dress</i> .	Tuch, <i>cloth</i> .
Gemüth, <i>mind</i> .	Korn, <i>grain</i> .	Volk, <i>nation</i> .
Geschlecht, <i>sex, race</i> .	Kraut, <i>herb</i> .	Wams, <i>jacket</i> .
Gesicht, <i>face</i> †.	Lamm, <i>lamb</i> .	Weib, <i>woman</i> .

Obs. 6. Several others, as *Strauch, shrub*; *Cabinet, cabinet*; *Bösewicht, villain*, &c. occur sometimes with *er*; but more generally they have the regular plural in *e*. The following substantives, however, have both *er* and *e*, but each with a different import; namely, the plural in *er* is used distributively, to denote a plurality of individual definite things, each of which the mind perceives separately; and the plural in *e*, collectively, to denote an aggregate, in which the individuals it comprehends are not distinctly perceived or noticed by the mind:—

Das Ding, *the thing*; plur. die Dinge, *things in general*—die Dinger, *individual things*. The latter plural implies, moreover, something of insignificancy.

Der Dorn, *the thorn*; plur. die Dorne, or more frequently Dornen, *thorns in general*—Dörner, *prickles*.

Das Land, *the country*; plur. die Lande, *lands, tracts of countries, indefinite parts of the globe*—Länder, *distinct countries*, divided from others by definite borders; as, Er hat viele Länder und Städte gesehen, *he has seen many countries and towns*.

* In the import of *tie, fetter*, it makes *Bande*, according to rule.

† In the sense of *vision* its plural is regular, *Gesichte*.

‡ In the latter import it has, according to some grammarians, the regular plural *Lichte*.

Der Ort, *the place*; plur. Orter, *individual places*—Orte, *indefinite places*; as, an allen Orten, *every where*; also *passages in books*.

Das Wort, *the word*; plur. Wörter, *single unconnected words*, as, for instance, in a dictionary—Worte, *words connected*, as in a sentence.

Mahl, *meal*, or *monument*, makes likewise, according to some grammarians, Mahle in a collective, and Mähler in a distributive, sense; yet both forms are often used indiscriminately. Blech, *plate*; Gewicht, *weight*; Stahl, *steel*; Stück, *piece*; and some other nouns, are in several parts of Germany also used with plurals in *e* and *er*, with some similar distinction of import; but in written language, these nouns have in general only *e*. The substantives Horn and Tuch of the foregoing list, make Hörne and Tuche, if importing kinds of those substances.

Obs. 7. The compounds of Mann, *man*, distinguish likewise the two uses of the plural; namely, they use Männer in the distributive, and Leute, *people*, in the collective, import. Thus the former plural is employed with such compounds as denote men who do not form a distinct body, and therefore are not viewed collectively; as, Staatsmann, *statesman*; Biedermann, *a sterling upright man*; Ehemann, *husband, married man*;—plur. Staatsmänner, Biedermänner, Ehemänner, *husbands* (*Eheleute, married people*). Leute is used with compounds which are often imagined collectively; as, Zimmermann, *carpenter*; Kaufmann, *merchant*; Edelmann, *nobleman*; Arbeitsmann, *workman*;—plur. Zimmerleute, *carpenters*; Kaufleute, *merchants*, &c. But these compounds, too, have Männer in the plural, if they are used with numbers, or if the sex is to be contradistinguished; as, drei Zimmermänner, *three carpenters*; Bettelmänner und Bettelweiber, *beggarmen and beggar-women*.

§ 41. With regard to the vowel inflection we observe:

1. No feminines have the vowel inflection but those mentioned in the divisions *a.*) and *c.*) of the second exception § 40.

2. No neuters have it but such as add *er* (see the third exception § 40), and these four: Arsenal, *arsenal*; Boot, *boat*; Floß, *raft*; Kloster, *convent*;—plur. Arsenäle, Böte (also Boote), Flöße, Klöster.

3. Of the masculines, the following have the vowel inflection:—

a.) All monosyllables, or dissyllables beginning with a prefix, which add *e* or *er* in the plural; as, Wolf, *wolf*;

Hut, hat; *Gebrauch, custom*; *Wald, forest*;—plur. *Wölfe, Hüte, Gebräuche, Wälder*. Except 1.) the list given below in the note *, none of which inflect their vowels; as, *Tage, days*; *Hunde, dogs*; *Arme, arms*; *Schuhe, shoes*; *Besuche, visits*; *Versuche, attempts*; *Puncte, points, &c.* 2.) Those nouns whose plural can only denote different kinds; as, *Flachs, flax*; *Talg, tallow*;—plur. *Flachse, Talge*.

b.) The following list:

Acker, <i>field</i> .	Garten, <i>garden</i> .	Nagel, <i>nail</i> .
Altar, <i>altar</i> .	Graben, <i>ditch</i> .	Ofen, <i>oven</i> .
Apfel, <i>apple</i> .	Hafen, <i>port</i> .	Pallast, <i>palace</i> .
Bischof, <i>bishop</i> .	Hammel, <i>wether</i> .	Sattel, <i>saddle</i> .
Boden, <i>bottom</i> .	Hammer, <i>hammer</i> .	Schaden, <i>damage</i> .
Bruder, <i>brother</i> .	Handel, <i>affair</i> .	Schnabel, <i>beak</i> .
Canal, <i>canal</i> .	Mangel, <i>defect</i> .	Schwager, <i>brother-in-law</i> .
Cardinal, <i>cardinal</i> .	Mantel, <i>cloak</i> .	
Castellan, <i>castellain</i> .	Marschall, <i>marshal</i> .	Vater, <i>father</i> .
Capellan, <i>chaplain</i> .	Morast, <i>morass</i> .	Vogel, <i>bird</i> .
Choral, <i>choral music</i> .	Nabel, <i>navel</i> .	

as, *Acker, fields*; *Böden, bottoms, &c.* Those which have two inflective vowels, inflect the last only; as, *Altäre, Cä-näle, &c.*

All the other masculines—that is, all which add *en* in the plural, or which have more than one syllable independent of a prefix, and are not contained in the preceding list, reject the vowel inflection; as, *der Abend, the evening*; *der Maler, the painter*; *der Knabe, the boy*;—plur. *die Abende, Maler, Knaben*.

Obs. 1. In a few nouns usage varies; thus *Faden, thread*, plur. *Fäden* or *Faden*; *Schoß, shoot*, plur. *Schöße* or *Schosse*; *Bogen, arch*, plur. *Bögen* and *Bögen* (in the import of *bow*, or *sheet of paper*, the plural is always *Bogen*); *Laden, shop, shutter*, plur. *Laden* and *Läden*. Some writers, however, confine the plural *Laden* to the import of *shutters*, and *Läden* to that of *shops*.

Obs. 2. From the foregoing rules the learner will observe, 1.) That

* These are: *Nat, Anwalt, Arm, Beruf, Besuch, Dachs, Decht, Dösch, Fraß, Gemahl, Grad, Gurt, Hauch, Huf, Hund, Knall, Kort, Krah, Lachs, Laut, Luchs, Mond, Pfad, Pfau, Pstropf, Plan, Pol, Punct, Qualm, Schluck, Schmutz, Schuh, Spalt, Staar, Stoff, Strauß, ostrich* (if importing *nosegay* it makes *Sträuße*), *Tact, Tag, Versuch*.

the plural formed by adding *en*, of whatever gender the noun may be, never admits the vowel inflection; 2) That that which takes *er*, on the contrary, always inflects the vowel; and 3) That the vowel inflection is confined chiefly to monosyllables.

Note.—In concluding the rules on the formation of the plural, it may not be amiss to observe, that the substantives which change their gender with their import (rule 3, § 37) form the plural according to the gender; as, *die Leiter*, *the ladder*, plur. *die Leitern*—*der Leiter*, *the conductor*, plur. *die Leiter*. Nor does the irregularity of one gender apply to the other; thus, *das Schild*, *the sign of an inn*, plur. *die Schilder*—*der Schild*, *the shield*, plur. regularly *die Schilde*; *das Band*, *the ribbon, tie*, plur. *die Bänder*, *ribbons*, and *die Bände*, *the ties* (page 76)—*der Band*, *the volume*, plur. *die Bände*.

PLURAL OF FOREIGN NOUNS.

§ 42. The preceding rules on the plural include nouns derived from foreign languages, as may be seen from some of the examples and exceptions. We have, however, to notice some substantives which have retained a pronunciation, or a termination, unusual in German words:—

1. A few of the substantives received from the Latin, terminating in *us* or *um*, retain their Latin plural *i* and *a*; as, *der Canonicus*, *the canon*; *der Actuarius*, *the actuary*; *der Musicus*, *the musician*; *der Syndicus*, *the syndic*;—plur. *die Canonici*, *Actuarii*, &c.; *das Factum*, *the fact*, plur. *die Facta*; *das Verbum*, *the verb*, plur. *die Verba* (or *das Verh*, plur. *die Verbe*).

But such plurals sound rather uncouth, and therefore, most words of these terminations form their plural by changing them into *en*; as, *Jambus*, *iambus*; *Katechismus*, *catechism*; *Typus*, *prototype*; *Studium*, *study*;—plur. *Jamben*, *Katechismen*, *Typen*, *Studien*. This is particularly the case if the terminations *us* and *um* are preceded by a vowel; as, *das Consistorium*, *consistory*; *das Lyceum*, *lyceum*; *das Individuum*, *individual*; *der Genius*, *genius, spirit**;—plur. *die Consistorien*, *Lyceen*, *Individuen*, *Genien*. Thus also *das Collegium*, *the college*; *das Amphibium*, *the amphibious animal*; *das Privilegium*, *privilege*; *das Gymnasium*; *das Evangelium*, *the gospel*; *der Notarius*, *the notary*, &c.

Obs. The same analogy we perceive in those foreign words which are not used in the singular (§ 43), and were therefore originally borrowed in their plural form from the classic languages; these have nearly all changed the original plural inflection into *en*; as, *Annalen*, *annals*; *Annaten*, *annats*; *Insignien*, *insignia*; *Repressalien*, *reprisals*; *Vegetabilien*, *vegetables*; *Materiatien*, *materials*; *Ingrebientien*, *ingredients*; *Aspetten*, *aspects*; *Progreffen*; *Accidentien*, *perquisites*. (The last four examples are sometimes used in the singular,

* *Genius* in the import of great talent is *Genie* (from the French), plural *Genies* (disyllabic).

but the plural is more frequent, and they were probably first used in that number.) So also all mythological names which are used only in the plural; as, die Penaten, *Penates*; Manen, *Manes*; Laren, *Lares*, &c.

2. The few feminines in *is* change likewise this termination into *en* in the plural: die Thes^{is}; die Kris^{is}; die Dose^{is}, *the dose*;—plur. die Thesen, Krisen, Dosen. Sometimes the original plural is retained: die Doseⁿ, Thesⁿ.

3. Some substantives of the neuter gender terminating in *ma*, derived from the Greek, either remain unaltered, or retain their Greek plural in *ata*: Klima, *climate*; Komma;—plur. die Klima or Klimata; die Komma or Kommata. Several others take *en*; as, Prisma, *prism*; Phantasma; Dogma; Panorama;—plur. die Prismen, Phantasmen, Dogmen, Panoramen.

4. Cherub and Seraph retain their Hebrew plural, Cherubim and Seraphim.

5. Masculines and neuters derived from the French, retain their original plural in *s*, if they have retained their foreign pronunciation (see § 10); as, der Gouverneur; der Banquier, *the banker*; der Compagnon, *the partner*; das Ponton, *the pontoon*; das Souper, *the supper*—plur. die Gouverneurs, Banquiers, &c. Some of them, as das Bataillon, das Billet, der Postillon, and a few others, occur both with the French and German plural; as, die Bataillons or Bataillone, die Billets or Bille^{te}, &c.

§ 43. DEFECTIVES IN NUMBER.

Many substantives are, by the nature of their import, or by usage, confined to one number only.

I. To the singular number are confined:—

1. Most substantives denoting things which are considered as mere matter, or in a mass, or as indefinite aggregates, and which, consequently, cannot be joined with numbers; as, Geld, *gold*; Kupfer, *copper*; Milch, *milk*; Stroh, *straw*; Hanf, *hemp*; die Reiterei, *the cavalry*; das Gefinde, *servants* (collectively); Vieh, *cattle*; Obst, *fruit*; Gerste, *barley*; Getreide, *corn*, &c. Other nouns of the above description are confined to the plural number—see rule II.

Except Erbsen, *pease*; Linsen, *lentils*; Bohnen, *beans*; Weizen, *tares*; and Beeren, *berries* (with all its compounds, as Johannisbeeren, *currants*; Stachelbeeren, *gooseberries*, &c.), which are used in both numbers, exactly as in English.

Obs. 1. Some substantives of this nature, of which there is frequent occasion to distinguish different kinds, use the plural to denote a plurality of sorts; as, Weine, *wines*; Leinwände, *linens*, &c. But more generally the word Gattungen, or Arten, is added for this purpose; as, viele Getreidearten, *many kinds of corn*; Obstgattungen, *kinds of fruit*.

Obs. 2. Some collective nouns are indiscriminately used in the singular or plural; as, das Haar or die Haare, *the hair*; das Geräth or die Geräthe, *implements*;

das Eingeweide or die Eingeweide, *the entrails*; der Reichthum or die Reichthümer, *riches*; das Gewürm or die Gewürme, *vermin*; die Mannschaft or die Mannschaften, *troops*; das Gedärm or die Gedärme, *the bowels*; and perhaps a few others. But with most aggregates of which there are several, distinct from each other, the two numbers are used with the same discrimination as in English; as, Gesellschaft, *society*—Gesellschaften, *societies*; Gestirn, *a constellation* (of stars)—Gestirne, *constellations*, &c.

2. A great number of abstract nouns; as, Klugheit, *prudence*; Geduld, *patience*; Wuth, *rage*; Scham, *shame*; Gehorsam, *obedience*; Armuth, *poverty*, &c. Particularly most neuter substantives derived from infinitives (§ 36, obs. 2); all nouns that begin with the prefix *ge*, denoting continuation of the action; and the names of sciences; as, das Leben, *the life*; das Ansehen, *the respect, consideration*; das Vorhaben, *the intention*; das Bestreben, *the endeavour*; das Vermögen, *the power*, also *property*; das Gemurmel, *the murmuring*; das Gedränge, *the throng, the crowd*; Mathematik, *mathematics*; Optik, *optics*; Metaphysik, *metaphysics*, &c.

Obs. 3. Many abstract nouns admit of a plural, to express different kinds of the idea denoted, or a recurrence of the same actions or feelings; as, Tugenden, *virtues*; Künste, *arts*; Freuden, *joys*; Schläge, *blows*; Bemühungen, *endeavours*; Hoffnungen, *hopes*, &c. Especially those become qualified for a plural, which extend their signification from the general idea to particular actions, relations, or occurrences, characterized by that general idea; as, Thorheiten, *follies*; Freiheiten, *liberties*; Grobheiten, *impertinences*, &c. In several instances, however, if the abstract term is to be applied to particular events and actions characterized by that abstract idea, some noun is annexed for that purpose; and compounds of this kind occur more frequently in the plural number; as, Vorsichtsmaßregeln, *precautions*; Unglücksfälle, *misfortunes*; Todesfälle, *deaths*; Liebeshändel, *amours*; Dankfagungen, *thanks*; Lobsprüche, or Lobeserhebungen, *praises*; Gunstbezeugungen, *favours*; Ehrenbezeugungen, *honours*; Rathschläge, *councils*, &c.; of all which compounds, the simple substantives Vorsicht, Unglück, &c., denoting only the pure abstract idea, are not found in the plural.

Obs. 4. Several nouns admit of a plural only in some particular significations, and not in others; as, Mangel, *want, fault*—Mängel, *faults, defects*, (not *wants*); Schuld, *guilt, or debt*—Schulden, *debts*, &c. With some others, each number has a signification of its own; as, Alterthum, *antiquity*—Alterthümer, *antiquities, relics of old times*; Lust, *pleasure, desire*—Lüste, *lusts*; Handel, *trade, commerce*—Händel, *quarrel*; Interesse, *concern or advantage*—Interessen, *interest of money*. The same occurs sometimes in English; in which cases the plural must be rendered in German by a different word; as, sand, Sand—sands, Sandplätze; lead, Blei—leads, Bleibach; wit, Wiß—wits (senses), Sinne, &c.

3. Nouns denoting weight, measure, or quantity (tale); as, Pfund, *pound*; Fuß, *foot*, &c.—at least these do not admit of the inflection of the plural (see Obs. 6); as, zehn Pfund Fleisch, *ten pound of meat*; zwanzig Fuß (or Schuh) breit, *twenty feet wide*; drei Schritt, oder Zoll, *long, three paces, or inches, long*; sechs Klafter tief, *six fathom deep*; vier Orbst, oder Faß, Wein, *four hogsheads, or casks, of wine*; drei Duzend Eier, *three dozen of eggs*; sechs Rieß, oder Buch, Papier, *six*

reams, or quires, of paper. Except those terminating in *e*, as *Weile, mile, Elle, ell*, which have the regular plural in *en*; as, *drei Meilen lang, three miles long*; *fünf Unzen Gold, five ounces of gold.*

Stück, piece, if referring to the individuals of a number, and *Mann, man*, relating to soldiers, remain also unchanged in the plural; as, *sechß Stück Vieh, six head of cattle*; *ein Regiment von tausend Mann, a regiment of one thousand men.* *Jahr, year*, and *Monat, month*, are found with and without their plural inflection: as, *Er ist sechs Jahr und drei Monat, or sechs Jahre und drei Monate, alt, he is six years and three months old.*

Obs. 5. When any of these substantives are used without any reference to weights or measures, they have the regular inflection of the plural; as, *Hier sind zwei Fässer, here are two casks*; *Er macht kurze Schritte, he takes short steps.*

Obs. 6. Although the above substantives do not admit of a plural inflection, yet the adjectives, definitives, and verbs, agreeing with them, are put in the plural number if we speak of more than one; as, *Diese zwei Pfund Zucker gehören mir, these two pounds of sugar belong to me*; *Nur zwanzig Mann entkamen, only twenty men escaped.*

II. The following substantives are in German generally confined to the plural;—*Ältern, parents*; *Blattern, small-pox*; *Briefschaften, letters, papers*; *Effecten, effects, chattels*; *Einkünfte, revenues*; *Fortschritte, progress*; *Gerechtsame, privileges*; *Gefälle, taxes*; *Gebrüder, brothers* (collectively); *Gliedmaßen, limbs*; *Hefen, dregs*; *Hosen, or Beinkleider, breeches*; *Kosten, expenses* (*Kost, board*, is of course a different word); *Ländereien, lands*; *Leute, people*; *Molken, whey*; *Ostern, Easter*; *Pfingsten, Whitsuntide*; *Schranken, limits, lists*; *Spesen, charges*; *Trümmer, fragments*; *Truppen, troops, forces* (but *der Trupp, pl. die Truppe, troop, gang*); *Weihnachten, Christmas*; *Unkosten, costs.*

To this list may also be added substantives derived from foreign languages, terminating in *alien*, or *ilien*; as, *Naturalien, natural curiosities*; *Möbilien, furniture*; besides several others which are also in English confined to the plural; as, *Pandekten, pandects*; *Ereliquien, exequies*; *Finanzen, finances* (see also § 42. *Obs.*).

The English and German sometimes differ in the use of number, as may have been already perceived from some of the preceding examples. There are many nouns, chiefly abstract, which are confined to the singular in one language, and in the other have both numbers. Thus, *Erfahrung, experience*; *Geschäft, business*; *Verleumdung, slander*; *Wichtigkeit, importance*; *Niederträchtigkeit, baseness*; *Ungerechtigkeit, injustice*; and probably some others, have in German both numbers, and in English only the singular. But, on the other hand, there is a more considerable class of nouns confined to the singular in German, which in English are used in both numbers; as, *Elend, misery*; *Lohn, reward*;

Unrecht, *wrong*; Furcht, *fear*; Unterricht, *instruction*; and several others, which may be left to the learner's observation. For most of such nouns, however, the language has others, nearly synonymous, which are not defective; in the same manner as the English substantives *politeness*, *dread*, *foresight*, are confined to the singular, whilst *civility*, *fear*, *precaution*, are used in the plural also. Thus the first noun in each of the following examples is confined to the singular, whilst the second admits both numbers, and may, in most cases, be substituted, if a plural be required:—Vergnügen and Vergnügung, *pleasure*; Betrug and Betrügerei, *deception*; Streit and Streitigkeit, *dispute*; Hang and Neigung, *inclination*; Gefallen and Gefälligkeit, *obligation*; Verlangen and Begierde, *desire*; Kummer and Leid, *sorrow*; Mühe and Mühseligkeit, *trouble*; Verdruss and Verdrießlichkeit, *vexation*; Mund and Maul, *mouth*, &c. From which examples it may also be observed, that abstract nouns with a feminine termination (§ 35) are more apt than others to admit a plural.

Another class of words are in English confined to the plural number, which in German are generally rendered by the singular:—Instruments and other articles, consisting of two parts joined together, and to which in English the word *pair* is generally added, are used in German in the singular; as, eine Schere, *a pair of scissors*; der Blasebalg, *the bellows*; die Zange, *the tongs*; ein Zirkel, *a pair of compasses*; Gängelband, *leading-strings*, &c. The plural of these substantives signifies *several pairs*; as, die Scheren, *the (several pair of) scissors*; drei Brillen, *three pair of spectacles*, &c.

In the following words, too, the German singular answers to the English plural:—Archiv, *archives*; Asche, *ashes*; Aufgebot, *banns*; Billiard, *billiards*, also *billiard-table*; Creditiv, *credentials*; Dank, *thanks*; Galgen, *gallows*; Gehirn, *brains*; Haber, *oats*; Hopfen, *hops*; Inhalt, *contents*; Kebricht, *sweepings*; Logis, *lodgings*; Lohn, *wages*; Lunge, *lungs*; Meerenge, *straits*; das Mittelalter, *the middle ages*; Nachlaß, *assets*; Quartier, *quarters*, and its compounds, Hauptquartier, *head-quarters*, &c.; Rückstand, *arrears*; Umgegend, *environs*; Uniform, *regimentals*; Verlöbniß, *espousals*; Vermählung, *nuptials*; Vorladung, *summons*.

Many of the preceding nouns have a plural in German, where the nature of their import admits it; as, die Meerengen, *straits*, i. e. in several parts of the globe; Billiarde, *billiard-tables*; Lungen, *the lungs* (of several animals).

Obs. 7. With some nouns used in both numbers in either language, the idiom differs, with respect to number, in particular cases only. Thus *hope*, if directed only to one object, is used in the singular in German; hence, for instance, 'in *hopes* of seeing him,' must be rendered, in der *Hoffnung* (not *Hoffnungen*) ihn zu sehen. *Verse*, if referring to the composition, is also used in the plural; as, eine Uebersetzung in Versen, *a translation in verse*. Thus, ohne

Umstände, *without ceremony*; zu Ihren Diensten, *at your service*; in Englischen (Französischen) Diensten, *in the English (French) service*; Machen Sie ihr mein Compliment, *present her my compliments*; and some other instances of this kind, which may easily be learned by practice.

Geographical proper names generally have the same number as in English; as, die Pyrenäen, *the Pyrenees*; die Dardannelen, *the Dardanelles*; die Niederlande, *the Netherlands*; der Bosporus, *the Bosphorus*, &c. Except Ostindien, *the East Indies*; and Westindien, *the West Indies*, which are in German of the singular number.

§ 44. CASE or DECLENSION.

With respect to the oblique cases (genitive, dative, and accusative) of both numbers, the following four rules are to be observed:—

Singular.

I. The feminine substantives are indeclinable; that is, the oblique cases are like the nominative (see § 45).

II. All masculines but those belonging to the next rule, and all neuters, have the accusative like the nominative; in the genitive they add *es*, and in the dative *e*. The *e*, however, both in the genitive and dative, *may* be dropped in most words, if euphony admits of it, particularly in words terminating with a servile syllable; and *must* be dropped in all those nouns which admit no *e* of inflection in the plural—that is, which end in *e*, *el*, *en*, *er*, or *lein*:—see exception 1, § 40; also § 46, *Obs.* 1.

III. The following masculines add, in all the oblique cases, *en* (or *n*, if ending in *e*):—

a.) All those of more than one syllable, denominating a person*, and of which the last syllable either has the principal accent†, or ends in *e*; as, *der Soldat, the soldier*;

* It is indifferent from what the denomination may arise, whether from occupation, office, dignity, nation, religion, or any relation whatever.

† With the exception of *Gesell, fellow, journeyman*, and *Genoss, an associate*, this is the case only with foreign words (see § 20); which the student unacquainted with foreign languages may know from their existing also in English, without the change of letters mentioned in § 26; though sometimes with a different termination; as, *Adept, adept*; *Adjunct, adjunct*; *Adjutant, adjutant*; *Advocat, advocate*; *Agent, agent*; *Apostat, apostate*; *Appellant, appellant*; *Architect, architect*; *Aristocrat, aristocrat*; *Arrestant, arrester*; *Astrolog, astrologer*; *Astronom, astronomer*; &c.

der Student, *the student*; der Knabe, *the boy*; genitive, des Soldaten, des Studenten, des Knaben; dative, dem Soldaten, &c. (see § 47.)

Except those terminating with a single l, n, or r, which, unless they are the names of nations (§ 47, *Obs.* 3.), always follow the second rule; as, der General, *the general*; der Capitän, *the captain*; der Offizier, *the officer*; der Antiquar, *the antiquarian*;—genitive, des Generals, des Capitäns, des Offiziers, des Antiquars;—dative, dem General, &c. However, the nouns Husar; Scholar; Veteran; and Corsar, *corsair*, add en in the oblique cases, according to the above rule.

b.) The following list:—

Aerostat, <i>balloon</i> .	Farre, <i>bullock</i> .	Narr, <i>fool</i> .
Affe, <i>ape</i> .	Finte, <i>finch</i> .	Nerv, <i>nerve</i> .
Abn, <i>ancestor</i> .	Foliant, <i>folio</i> .	Ochz, <i>ox</i> .
Amethyst, <i>amethyst</i> .	Fürst, <i>prince</i> .	Paragraph, <i>paragraph</i> .
Bär, <i>bear</i> .	Geck, <i>coxcomb</i> .	Planet, <i>planet</i> .
Basilisk, <i>basilisk</i> .	Göze, <i>idol</i> .	Prinz, <i>prince</i> .
Brilliant, <i>brilliant</i> .	Graf, <i>count</i> .	Quadrant, <i>quadrant</i> .
Bulle, <i>bull</i> .	Hagestolz, <i>old bachelor</i> .	Quartant, <i>quarto</i> .
Christ, <i>christian</i> .	Hase, <i>hare</i> .	Quotient, <i>quotient</i> .
Consonant, <i>consonant</i> .	Heib, <i>hero</i> .	Rabe, <i>raven</i> .
Drache, <i>dragon</i> .	Herr, <i>master</i> .	Rappe, <i>black horse</i> .
Einsatz or } <i>inhabitant</i> .	Komet, <i>comet</i> .	Schenk, <i>publican</i> .
Insatz, }	Löwe, <i>lion</i> .	Thor, <i>fool</i> .
Elephant, <i>elephant</i> .	Mensch, <i>man</i> .	Trappe, <i>bustard</i> .
Falke, <i>falcon</i> .	Moor, <i>moor, negro</i> .	

Obs. The preceding list contains the few masculines in e which do not denominate persons; except Käse, *cheese*, and the nouns mentioned § 46, *Obs.* 2, as ending indifferently in e or en. With the exception of these nouns, therefore, it may be given as a rule, that all masculines in e, of whatever import, add n in the oblique cases.

Plural.

IV. The oblique cases of all nouns of whatever gender are like the nominative; except the dative of such plurals as do not terminate in n; which case invariably superadds n to the nominative;—see the tables in §§ 45 & 46.

The preceding rules, with those on the plural, are sufficient to decline all substantives: yet by way of exemplifi-

cation we will adopt three declensions, according to the three foregoing rules for the singular, and add a few observations to each declension. It may be useful to repeat here, that compounded nouns follow the declension of the last component part (§ 31); thus *der Fruchtbaum*, *the fruit tree*, gen. *des Fruchtbaums*, pl. *die Fruchtbäume*, &c.;—*die Baumfrucht*, *the fruit of a tree*, gen. *der Baumfrucht*, pl. *die Baumfrüchte*.

§ 45. THE FIRST DECLENSION

comprehends all the feminine substantives, and no others.

Singular.

	<i>door</i>	<i>flower</i>	<i>sister</i>	<i>art</i>	
N.	die Thür	Blume	Schwester	Kunst	<i>the</i>
G.	der Thür	Blume	Schwester	Kunst	<i>of the</i>
D.	der Thür	Blume	Schwester	Kunst	<i>to the</i>
A.	die Thür	Blume	Schwester	Kunst	<i>the</i>

} *door, flower, sister, art.*

Plural.

N.	die Thüren	Blumen	Schwestern	Künste	<i>the</i>
G.	der Thüren	Blumen	Schwestern	Künste	<i>of the</i>
D.	den Thüren	Blumen	Schwestern	Künsten	<i>to the</i>
A.	die Thüren	Blumen	Schwestern	Künste	<i>the</i>

} *doors, flowers, sisters, arts.*

Like *Blume* and *Schwester* are declined, all the feminines of the first exception, § 40; like *Kunst* those of *b*) and *c*) in the second exception; all the other feminines like *Thür*, except *Mutter* and *Tochter*, the plural of which runs thus: *die Mütter*, *der Mütter*, *den Müttern*, *die Mütter*; *die Töchter*, *der Töchter*, &c.

Decline the following substantives for practice: *die Königin*, *the queen*; *die Arbeit*, *the work*; *die Fischerei*, *the fishery*; *die Armee*, *the army*; *die Theorie*, *the theory*; *die Ader*, *the vein*; *die Wurzel*, *the root*; *die Nichte*, *the niece*; *die Großmutter*, *the grandmother*; *die Schwiegertochter*, *the daughter-in-law*; *die Wildniß*, *the wilderness*; *die Armbrust*, *the crossbow*; *die Haselnuß*, *the hazel nut*.

Obs. 1. A great number of feminines had in Old German the inflection *en* in the oblique cases of the singular: which may be still traced in some expressions; as, *auf Erden*, *on earth*; *zu Schanden*, *to shame*; *mit Freuden*, *with joy*; *von Seiten*, *on the side or part*. *Frau* is often found with the inflection *en* in the genitive, if it is followed by the noun which governs it; as, *es gehört Ihrer Frauen Schwester* (or *der Schwester Ihrer Frau*), *it belongs to your wife's sister*.

Obs. 2. Before *wegen* and *halber* (two prepositions which govern the genitive), feminine nouns, if not preceded by an article, take sometimes *s* as a genitive inflection ; for instance, *Krankheits halber*, on account of illness ; *Einigkeits wegen*, for unity's sake. The feminine nouns *Seit*, side, and *Nacht*, night, occur also on other occasions with this inflection in the genitive ; as, *Französischer Seits*, on the part of the French ; *Nachts* (or even *des Nachts*) *reisen*, to travel by night. In the above instances the *s* must be considered as anomalous—this letter not being used as a feminine inflection : it is, however, not uncommon with feminines forming the first part of a compound, where it serves as a kind of juncture analogous to a genitive ; as, *Freiheitsfahne*, banner of freedom ; *Rechnungsführer*, keeper of accounts ; *hoffnungslos*, hopeless.

§ 46. THE SECOND DECLENSION

contains all the masculines not belonging to the following declension, and all the neuters ; the latter not being distinguished from the former by their own inflections, but merely by those of the article or other definitives.

Masculines.

Singular.

	<i>the son</i>	<i>day</i>	<i>angel</i>	<i>sword</i>	<i>ray</i>	
N.	der Sohn	Tag	Engel	Degen	Strahl	<i>the</i>
G.	des Sohnes	Tages	Engels	Degens	Strahles	<i>of the</i>
D.	dem Sohne	Tage	Engel	Degen	Strahle	<i>to the</i>
A.	den Sohn	Tag	Engel	Degen	Strahl	<i>the</i>

} son, day,
angel, sword,
ray.

Plural.

N.	die Söhne	Tage	Engel	Degen	Strahlen	<i>the</i>	} <i>sons, days, angels, swords, rays.</i>
G.	der Söhne	Tage	Engel	Degen	Strahlen	<i>of the</i>	
D.	den Söhnen	Tagen	Engeln	Degen	Strahlen	<i>to the</i>	
A.	die Söhne	Tage	Engel	Degen	Strahlen	<i>the</i>	

} sons, days,
angels, swords,
rays.

Neuters.

Singular.

	<i>the horse</i>	<i>picture</i>	<i>window</i>	<i>village</i>	
N.	das Pferd	Gemälde	Fenster	Dorf	<i>the</i>
G.	des Pferdes	Gemäldes	Fensters	Dorfes	<i>of the</i>
D.	dem Pferde	Gemälde	Fenster	Dorfe	<i>to the</i>
A.	das Pferd	Gemälde	Fenster	Dorf	<i>the</i>

}
*horse, picture,
window, village.*

} horse, picture,
window, village.

			Plural.		
N.	die Pferde	Gemälde	Fenster	Dörfer	the
G.	der Pferde	Gemälde	Fenster	Dörfer	of the
D.	den Pferden	Gemälden	Fenstern	Dörfern	to the
A.	die Pferde	Gemälde	Fenster	Dörfer	the

} horses, pictures,
windows, villages,

Like *Degen* are declined all nouns of the first exception § 40, ending in *en* or *lein*; the others of that exception like *Engel*, *Fenster*, or *Gemälde*. Like *Strahl*, the nouns of *b.*) and *c.*) in the third exception § 40. Like *Dorf*, all those which add *er* in the plural (see the third exception § 40). All the other nouns of this declension are declined like *Sohn*, *Tag*, or *Pferd*; namely, those which inflect the vowel in the plural (§ 41) like *Sohn*, and the rest like *Tag* and *Pferd*.

Decline the following for practice:—*der Wolf*, the wolf; *der Fluß*, the river; *der Auftrag*, the order; *der Baum*, the tree; *der Feiertag*, the holiday; *das Jahr*, the year; *der König*, the king; *der Anker*, the anchor; *das Ufer*, the shore; *der Rücken*, the back; *der Bruder*, the brother; *der Vogel*, the bird; *das Reithuhn*, the partridge; *das Armband*, the bracelet; *der Einband*, the binding; *das Büchlein*, the little book; *der Director*, the director.

Obs. 1. It has already been observed, that the *e* of inflection in the gen. and dat. sing. is, in many words, optional; thus we might also say, *des Sohns*, *dem Sohn*; *des Strahls*, *dem Strahl*, instead of *des Sohnes*, &c. It cannot, however, be omitted in the gen. if the nominative sing. ends with a hissing consonant (*s*, *ß*, *z*, or *sch*); as, *Glas*, *Fuß*, *Kreuz*, *Busch*—gen. *Glases*, *Fusses*, &c. It is, generally, also retained both in the genitive and dative, in monosyllables ending in *b*, *t*, *g*, or *ch*; as, *Laub*, *Rad*, *Tag*, *Buch*—gen. *des Laubes*, *des Rades*, &c.—dat. *dem Laube*, *dem Rade*, &c.

Obs. 2. The masculines *Frieden*, peace; *Funken*, spark; *Fußstapfen*, footstep; *Gedanken*, thought; *Glauben*, belief; *Haufen*, heap; *Namen*, name; *Samen*, seed; *Schaden*, damage; *Willen*, will, are most frequently used without the final *n* in the nominative singular—*Friede*, *Funke*, *Fußstapfe*, *Gedanke*, &c.—but only in that case; in all the others they invariably retain it, and are declined like *Degen*; as, *des Funkens*, *dem Funken*, *den Funken*; pl. *die Funken*, &c. *Der Buchstab*, the letter, though it has never a final *n* in the nom. sing., is declined in the same manner; gen. *des Buchstabens*, *dem Buchstaben*, *den Buchstaben*; pl. *die Buchstaben*, &c.

The nouns *Schmerzen*, pain; *Daumen*, thumb; *Felsen*, rock; *Schrecken*, fright; *Brunnen*, well, which are declined like *Degen*, occur also without the final *en*, in which case however they are differently declined; namely,

Schmerz, Daum, and Fels, like Strahl; Schreck, like Tag; and Brunn, and sometimes also Fels, follow the third declension. Das Herz, *the heart*, is quite irregular: gen. des Herzens, dat. dem Herzen, acc. das Herz; pl. die Herzen, der Herzen, &c.

Obs. 3. The masculines Ost, *east*; West, *west*; Nord, *north*; Süd, *south*, are by some grammarians declined after this, by others after the following declension: der Ost, des Ostes, dem Ost, &c., or des Osten, dem Osten, &c. After prepositions they have always the ending en: von Norden, *from the north*; gen Süden, *towards the south*; aus Westen, *from the west*. If used metaphorically, for the winds coming from those quarters, they always follow this declension; as, die lieblichen Weste, *the pleasing west winds*. But these four nouns are likewise used with the final en in the nom. sing., and are then declined like Regen; as, der Norden, der Osten, &c., gen. des Nordens, des Ostens, &c.

§ 47. THE THIRD DECLENSION

consists of all the nouns belonging to the third rule, § 44; which, it will be remembered, are all masculines, and for the most part denominate persons.

Singular.

N. der Knabe,	<i>the boy.</i>	der Soldat,	<i>the soldier.</i>
G. des Knaben,	<i>of the boy.</i>	des Soldaten,	<i>of the soldier.</i>
D. dem Knaben,	<i>to the boy.</i>	dem Soldaten,	<i>to the soldier.</i>
A. den Knaben,	<i>the boy.</i>	den Soldaten,	<i>the soldier.</i>

Plural.

N. die Knaben,	<i>the boys.</i>	die Soldaten,	<i>the soldiers.</i>
G. der Knaben,	<i>of the boys.</i>	der Soldaten,	<i>of the soldiers.</i>
D. den Knaben,	<i>to the boys.</i>	den Soldaten,	<i>to the soldiers.</i>
A. die Knaben,	<i>the boys.</i>	die Soldaten,	<i>the soldiers.</i>

Like Knabe are declined all the nouns ending in e, all the others like Soldat.—Several nouns ending in e are adjectives used as substantives, and have the adjective declension; for which see § 52.

Decline the following for practice: der Bothe, *the messenger*; Pfaffe, *priest*; Gefährte, *companion*; Hirte (or Hirt), *herdsman*; Churfürst, *elector*; Markgraf, *margrave*; Eisbär, *polar bear*; Hofnarr, *court fool*. For more examples see the list b, page 85.

Obs. 1. Herr, *master*, drops often the e of inflection, more especially in the singular: des Herrn, dem Herrn, or des Herren, &c., pl. die Herren.—Poets often omit en in the accusative singular of nouns of this declension, and say den Fürst, *the prince*; den Held, *the hero*, &c. instead of den Fürsten, &c. Mond, *moon*, if used, poetically, for *month*, follows also this declension.

Obs. 2. The nouns *Bauer, peasant*; *Diamant, diamond*; *Nachbar, neighbour*; *Better, cousin*; *Unterthan, subject*; *Vorfahr, predecessor*; *Tropf, simpleton*; *Psalm, psalm*; *Pfau, peacock*; and *Spaß, sparrow*, are ranked in this declension by some grammarians; but they are as often declined after the second; namely, the three last regularly like *Berg*, and all the others like *Strahl*—see § 40, Exc. III. c.

Obs. 3. All names of nations and tribes not ending in *er*, as *Tartar*; *Janitschar, Janissary*; *Cannibal*; *Döman*; *Hottentot*; *Moor, moor*, &c., belong to this declension. But those ending in *er*, as *Engländer, Englishman*; *Spanier, spaniard*, are declined like *Engel* of the preceding declension. Except *Baier, Bavarian*; *Pommer, Pommeranian*; *Ungar, Hungarian*, which are declined by some after this, but more generally like *Strahl* of the second declension; adding, however, *n* (not *en*) in the plural. *Buschmann, Bushman*, and *Normann*, are declined like *Mann*; as, *Buschmann, gen. Buschmannes, &c., pl. Buschmänner, &c.* *Muselman* is also declined in this manner.

Note.—Some substantives are found only in connection with certain words, and may therefore be considered as defective in case, not being used in all the cases of the declension; as, *sich in Acht nehmen, to take care*; in *Saß und Braß leben, to live in riot and revelry*; *mit Zug, with right*; *ohne Entgelt, without remuneration*; *ohne Falsch, without disguise*; *ohne Arg, without deceit*; *Statt finden, to take place.* (See also § 40, *Obs. 3.*)

§ 48. The four rules of § 44 apply also to substantives derived from foreign languages, which must be arranged accordingly under the three declensions; namely, all feminines follow the first; all neuters, the second; all masculines, either the second or third, according to rule.

We must however notice the nouns from the classic languages ending in *us* and *a*; these remain unvaried in the singular, and are declined only by the article; as, *der Genius, des Genius, dem Genius, den Genius*; *das Elima, des Elima, &c.* Those in *um*, too, remain sometimes unvaried, but more generally receive *s* in the genitive; as, *das Publicum, des Publicum, or Publicums, dem Publicum, das Publicum.* The plural of these nouns, as has already been observed (§ 42), may, with very few exceptions, be formed by changing the termination *us, a, um*, into *en*. This is more especially the case in the genitive and dative, where that ending is preferable to the foreign inflections; which are, however, sometimes adopted.

Those from the French, which add *s* in the plural (§ 42), retain that inflection through all the plural cases, even in the dative; as, *der Actor, the actor*; *pl. die Acteurs, der Acteurs, den Acteurs, die Acteurs.*

Masculines and neuters taken from other modern languages, ending in *a*, *i*, or *o*, may remain uninflected throughout, or take an *s* in the gen. sing. and in all the cases of the plural; as, *der Aga*, *der Cabi*, *das Adagio*; gen. *des Aga*, *Cabi*, *Adagio*—or *des Aga's*, *Cabi's*, *Adagio's*; dat. *dem Aga*, &c.; plur. nom. *die Aga* (also *Agen*), *Cabi*, *Adagio*—or *Aga's*, *Cabi's*, *Adagio's*, gen. *der Aga*, &c.

§ 49. PROPER NAMES.

In the declension of proper names, usage varies considerably. Most grammarians, however, agree in the following rules:—

GEOGRAPHICAL PROPER NAMES are declined like common nouns; that is, those of the feminine gender (§ 39) are unvaried throughout all the cases; and those of the two other genders take *s* in the genitive, and remain uninflected in the dative and accusative; as, *die Ufer des Rheins und der Elbe*, *the banks of the Rhine and the Elbe*; *Berlins Einwohner*, *the inhabitants of Berlin*; *die Gränzen Frankreichs*, *the borders of France*; *Maria segelte von Frankreich nach Schottland*, *Mary sailed from France to Scotland*.

Except names ending in *s*, *z*, or *x*, which remain uninflected even in the genitive; as, *des Peloponnes*, *of the Peloponnesus*; *des Styr*, *of the Styr*. *Der Harz*, *the Harz mountains*, makes, however, *des Harzes*. With names of towns having the above final letters, the preposition *von* is used, or an appellative is added to the proper name, in order to mark the relation of the genitive; since they are without an article (*Obs.* 4.) by which that case could be ascertained; as, *die Einwohner von Paris* (*Mainz, Cadix*, &c.), *the inhabitants of Paris* (*Mentz, Cadiz*); or *der Stadt Paris*, &c., *of the city of Paris*, &c.

Obs. 1. The final *ia* of geographical names derived from the Latin is apt in German to change into *ien*; as, *Arcadien*, *Arcadia*; *Dalmatien*, *Dalmatia*; *Helvetien*, *Helvetia*, &c. In some names, however, both terminations *ia* and *ien* are current through all the cases; as, *Asia* or *Asien*, *Alexandria* or *Alexandrien*, *Antiochia* or *Antiochien*; gen. *Asia's* or *Asiens*, *Alexandria's* or *Alexandriens*; dat. and acc. *Asia* or *Asien*, &c. &c.: though in the oblique cases *en* seems to be preferred to *a*. But, if not preceded by *i*, the final *a* of foreign names is retained in all the cases; as, *Africa*, *Carthaga*, *Canada*, &c. gen. *Africa's*, dat. and acc. *Africa*, &c. However, *Europa*, *Europe*, and *Troja*, *Troy*, make in the gen. *Europens*, *Trojens*, or *Europa's*, *Troja's*, dat. and acc. *Europen*, *Trojen*, or, more commonly, *Europa*, *Troja*.

PROPER NAMES OF PERSONS may be declined in two ways: First, by the article merely—that is, the name itself remaining unvaried, and the article preceding it in the oblique cases, for the purpose of marking them; as,

N.	Heinrich, <i>Henry</i> .	Luiſe, <i>Louisa</i> .
G.	deſ Heinrich, <i>of Henry</i> .	der Luiſe, <i>of Louisa</i> .
D.	dem Heinrich, <i>to Henry</i> .	der Luiſe, <i>to Louisa</i> .
A.	den Heinrich, <i>Henry</i> .	die Luiſe, <i>Louisa</i> .

Secondly, by inflection; the genitive of both sexes receiving *s* or *enſ*, and the dative and accusative remaining like the nominative, or, in many names, receiving *en*; as will be seen from the subjoined tables,

N.	Heinrich.	Luiſe.	Colou.
G.	Heinrichſ.	Luiſenſ.	Colouſ.
D.	Heinrichen.	Luiſen.	Colou.
A.	Heinrichen.	Luiſen.	Colou.

Like Heinrich, most proper names are declined: Ludwig, Kant, Wolf, Elizabeth, &c. This declension is the basis, of which the others are mere modifications. The *e* in the inflection *en* is dropped if the final letter be *l* or *r*, not immediately preceded by an accented vowel: thus Schlegel, Luther, Cäſar, Carl, make in the dat. and acc. Schlegeln, Luthern, &c.

Like Luiſe are declined, 1.) all female names ending in *e*; as, Amalie, Sophie, &c.; 2.) all male names ending with a hissing consonant; as, Schulz, Voß, Leibniß, Horaz, Marx, Duſch; gen. Schulzenſ, &c. Male names in *e* and female names in *a* are declined, either after this manner—as, Göthe, Diana; gen. Göthenſ, Dianenſ; dat. and acc. Göthen, Dianen—or like Colou, making gen. Göthe's, Diana's; dat. and acc. Göthe, Diana.

Like Colou are declined all names with a final vowel which do not fall under the preceding rule, and those ending in *n* or *m*, of which the last syllable is unaccented; as, Taſſe, Jacobi, Fanny, Juno, Cotta, Abraham, Ceſim, Klärchen, Hütten. Those ending in vowels should, according to some grammarians, receive *n* in the dative and accusative—Jacobi'n, Fanny'n. In the genitive they generally have an apostrophe—Taſſe's, Fanny's. Some authors put an apostrophe before the inflections of all names—Kant's, Cäſar's, Cäſar'n, &c.

Obs. 2. The inflection *en*, except in female names in *e*, is falling much into disuse, even with the most correct authors; particularly in foreign names, and such as are not quite familiar; in many of which that inflection would strike the hearer as very unusual. It may, therefore, be most advisable for the learner to leave the dative and the accu-

native of male names uninflected; as, *Ich lese Schiller, I read Schiller*; *Kennen Sie Voss, do you know Voss*; or, in cases where ambiguity is to be prevented, to use the article; as, *Ich ziehe Homer dem Virgil vor, I prefer Homer to Virgil*.

Obs. 3. In addition to the above rules it may be remarked:—1.) If a proper name of a person is preceded by others in apposition, the last only is inflected, as in English; as, *Johann Heinrich Vossens Uebersetzung, J. H. Voss's translation*; *Luise Brachmanns Gedichte, Louisa Brachman's poems*; *Friedrich von * Schillers Werke, Frederick von (de) Schiller's works*. 2.) If an appellative without an article precedes a proper name, the former remains likewise unvaried, the latter alone receiving the genitive inflection; as, *König Ludwigs Macht, the power of king Louis*; *Doctor Martin Luthers Schriften, Dr. Martin Luther's writings*. *Herr, Mr.*, however, is inflected; as, *Herrn Schneiders Garten, Mr. Schneider's garden*. 3.) If an appellative with an article, or with another definitive, precedes a proper name, the former alone is inflected; but when it follows it, both are inflected; as, *die Macht des Königs Ludwig, the power of king Louis*; *ein Freund meines Bruders Heinrich, a friend of my brother Henry*; *der Tod Ludwigs, Königes von Frankreich, the death of Louis, king of France*; *ein Bruder Kleists, des Dichters, a brother of Kleist the poet*. 4.) When preceded by an adjective or an adjective pronoun, female names are not inflected, but those of men require *s* in the genitive; as, *die Briefe meiner guten Henriette, the letters of my good Henrietta*; *ein Sohn des berühmten Wolfs, a son of the celebrated Wolf*; *das Unglück dieses Ludwigs, the misfortune of this Louis*; *der Character jenes Karls, the character of that Charles*.

Obs. 4. Concerning the use of the article with proper names we remark, 1.) With names of persons the article may be used, as stated above, to mark the oblique cases; but if this is done by inflections of the noun, the article must be omitted. It is never used in the nominative, unless in speaking very familiarly, or contemptuously, of a person. But if a proper name is used as an appellative to denote a quality, it must be attended by an article, even in the nominative, the name remaining uninflected; as, *der Demosthenes unserer Zeit, the Demosthenes of our age*; *es erfordert die Weisheit eines Salomo, it requires the wisdom of a Solomon*: 2.) Geographical proper names of the mas. or fem. gender are always attended by the article (for examples see the beginning of this section); but neuters, on the contrary, with very few exceptions,

* In the above example, *von* is a mere predicate of nobility; but if the word after *von* is a country or place, the name before *von* should be inflected instead of that after it; as, *die Thaten Friedrichs von Preußen, the deeds of Frederick of Prussia*; *die Gedichte Wolframs von Eschenbach, the poems of Wolfram of Eschenbach*.

do not admit of it, unless preceded by an adjective: For, 3.) any proper name, whether of person or place, which is preceded by an adjective, must be attended by an article, or another definitive; as, *der unsterbliche Shakspeare, the immortal Shakspeare*; *die arme Marie, poor Mary*; *das alte Rom, ancient Rome*. Except in addressing a person; as, *lieber Heinrich, dear Henry*.

PLURAL. Proper names form their plural—which number, it may be observed, is used in the same manner as in English—nearly like appellatives; namely, the names of males add *e*, but without vowel inflection; and those of females add *en*, or *n* if terminating in a vowel; as *die Kante, Wolfe, Hermanne* (not *Wölfe, Hermänner*), *Heinriche*; *die Elisabethen, Luifen, &c. the Kants, Wolfs, &c.* Male names ending in a vowel, or in *el, en, er*, and all diminutives (§ 32), even of female names, have the plural like the singular; as, *die Jacobi, die beiden Schlegel, die Luther, die Pieschen, &c. the Jacobis, the two Schlegels, &c.* The plural in *s* which is sometimes met with—*die Schlegels, die Garricks*—is rejected by grammarians as foreign to the German language. The oblique cases of the plural are formed like those of the appellatives (rule 4, § 44); as, *nom. die Kante, Schlegel, Luifen*; *gen. der Kante, Schlegel, Luifen*; *dat. den Kanten, Schlegeln, Luifen*; *acc. die Kante, Schlegel, Luifen*.

Geographical proper names used only in the plural number, generally end in *en* in German; as, *die Pyrenäen, the Pyrenees*; *die Dardanellen, the Dardanelles*; except *die Corbilleras*, and perhaps a few others.

Latin and Greek names ending in *s* preceded by a vowel, and German names in *us*, remain uninflected, and can be declined only by the article; as, *die Geschichte des Tacitus, the history of Tacitus*; *die Mährchen des Musäus, the tales of Musæus*; *die Weisheit des Sokrates, the wisdom of Socrates, &c.* Sometimes even the article is omitted: *Hier ist Bacchus Gabe, here is the gift of Bacchus*.

The plural of such names remains likewise uninflected; as, *die beiden Pompejus, the two Pompeys*; *die Phidias, the Phidiases*. The regular plural in *e* occurs also sometimes, in which case the final *s* is doubled; as, *Pliniusse, Brutusse, Herculesse, &c.* Some historical names in *ius* occurring often in the plural, change this termination into *ier*; as, *die Horatier und Curiatier, the Horatii and Curiatii*; *die Fabier, the Fabii*. But all names which do not end in *us, es, as, &c.*, or which have dropped these endings in German*, as *Cäsar, Plato, Virgil, Homer*, are

* In classic names, the English and German generally agree with regard to the retaining or dropping the foreign termination: *Ovid, Sallust, Virgil, Martial, Juvenal, Horat (Horace), Terent (Terence), Diogenes, Oxygenes, Persius, &c.* In some, however, they differ: *Livius, Livy; Plinius, Pliny; Mercur, Mercury; Antonius, Anthony; Pompejus, Pompey; Aristoteles, Aristotle; Telemach, Telemachus*; and probably in a few others.

declined like German names; except that those in *o* make the plural in *e*: die Cicerone, Catone. Otto likewise makes Ottone.—A few scripture names occur often with the Latin declension; as, Christus, Christi, Christo, Christum; Maria, Mariä, &c.: die Geburt Christi, *the birth of Christ*; die Empfängniß Mariä, *the conception of Mary*.

THE ADJECTIVE.

§ 50. The adjective is used in two different ways;—

First, as expressive of the mere name of a quality, or property, without implying any connection with substance—that connection, if it takes place, being distinctly denoted by a verb, either expressed or understood; as, ‘This is called *red*;’ ‘To be *satisfied* is to be *rich*;’ ‘This man is *rich*;’ ‘These people, though (they are) *rich*, are not *happy*.’

Secondly, as implying, in addition to the preceding import, an immediate connection with a substantive; as, ‘The *rich man*;’ ‘A *green tree*;’ ‘*Happy children*.’

We shall, after some grammarians, call the former the **ABSTRACT ADJECTIVE**, since it imports quality in abstract only, and unconnected with substance; and the latter, the **CONCRETE ADJECTIVE**, being conceived only as pertaining to substance.

Obs. 1. These two kinds of adjectives may be distinguished by the places they occupy in the sentence; the latter, in general, precedes its substantive immediately; or, if it comes after, it is attended by the definite article; as, ‘great men,’ ‘Charles the Great.’ The former, in the usual order, always stands after its verb (expressed or implied), and is never attended by an article, as in the examples at the beginning of this section.

The German language very aptly distinguishes these two moods of the adjective, if we may so call them, by a difference of form. The abstract adjective, being in itself independent of any substance, is never declined, and the word as found in the dictionary (which is its grammatical root) is, when the predicate of a substantive, used for all genders and numbers; as, *der Mann ist reich*, *the man is rich*; *die Frau ist reich*, *the woman is rich*; *die Leute sind reich*, *the*

people are rich. But the concrete adjective, being used to define and limit the substantive by distinguishing it from others of the same species, and thus becoming a mere servile of the substantive, agrees with it in gender, case, and number, and consequently must be declined. Compare page 54, and the following section.

Obs. 2. The grammatical root of the adjective is in German used also as an adverb, without undergoing any change, and the same form serves therefore for the abstract adjective and for the adverb; as, *Er ist reich und reich gekleidet, he is rich and richly dressed.* In the degrees of comparison, the abstract adjective and the adverb are also exactly alike in form *. (See the Adverb.)

Obs. 3. There are several adjectives which are not used in both ways, and may therefore be termed defective. The following are used merely as abstracts, and some of them only with the verb *werden*, *to become*, and not with the verb *seyn*, *to be*:—*Abhold*, *unfavourable, unkind*; *abspänstig*, *alienate*; *abwendig*, *averse*; *angst*, *uneasy*; *ansichtig*, *in sight*; *bereit*, *ready*; *eingedenk*, *mindful, bearing in mind*; *feind*, *hostile*; *getrost*, *confident*; *gewahr*, *aware*; *gewärtig*, *expecting*; *gram*, *displeased, bearing a grudge*; *habhaft*, *in possession of*; *handgemein*, *in close fight*; *fund*, *public, manifest*; *leid*, *sorry*; *noth*, *needful*; *nütze*, *useful*; *quitt*, *quit*; *theilhaft*, *participating*; *unpaß*, *unwell*; *verlöstig*, *forfeited, lost*.

On the other hand, there are several which are used only as concretes,

* This circumstance has led Adelung, in his German Grammar, to class the abstract adjective with the adverb of quality, admitting the word in its concrete form alone as an adjective;—a doctrine which has been opposed by most German grammarians. We may however remark, that if conjunction with substance be characteristic of the adjective (an opinion held also by some English grammarians), the abstract mode must undoubtedly be excluded. Further, the difference between the concrete and abstract adjective, consisting in the import of these words themselves, is more palpable than that between the latter and the adverb of quality, which consists merely in the difference of those words of which they form an attribute. Therefore, as in the German language the abstract adjective differs in form from the concrete, but not from the adverb, Adelung's arrangement appears, so far, not improper. But, with more justice it may be objected, that the relation of the abstract adjective to the concrete is analogous to that which exists between the infinitive and the indicative mood of a verb, or to that of the nominative of the substantive to its genitive—the infinitive and nominative expressing the mere name of the action or substance, the latter two adding the idea of conjunction with a noun. Now, most grammarians, and Adelung himself, consider the infinitive a part of the verb, and the nominative and genitive both as substantives; consequently, as conjunction with substance in these parts of speech is regarded as mere accident, it seems inconsistent to make it essential in adjectives.

namely, 1.) Adjectives ending in *ig*, denoting relation of time or place; as, *hierig, of this place*; *dortig, of that place*; *nachherig, subsequent*; *jen-seitig, on the other side*; *innig, inward*; *vormalig, former*; *baldig, speedy*; *jetzig, present*. These are, for the most part, derivatives of adverbs (thus, *hier, here*; *dort, there*; *nachher, afterwards, &c.* are the primitives of the above adjectives); and there is no corresponding adjective in English for most of them. 2.) Adjectives ending in *isch*, derived from proper names of places, and signifying the being of, or coming from, a place; as, *Rölnisches Wasser, Cologne water*; *die Frankfurterische Zeitung, the Frankfort newspaper*. 3.) Those in *en* or *ern*, denoting the substance of which a thing consists or is made; as, *seiden, silken*; *bleiern, leaden, &c.* 4.) The participles in *end* preceded by *zu*; as, *das zu übersehende Gedicht, the poem to be translated*. 5.) The ordinal numbers; as, *der erste, the first*; *der zweite, the second, &c.*; which, being a kind of superlatives, cannot be used in abstract (compare § 54, *Obs.*). 6.) The defective degrees of comparison mentioned § 55; as, *der innere, the inner*; *der obere, the upper, &c.*

§ 51. DECLENSION OF ADJECTIVES.

Concerning the declension of the concrete adjectives (§ 50), the following rules must be observed:—

1. If the adjective is preceded by a definitive which denotes by its inflection the case, gender, and number, of the substantive, it receives the following inflections; which, not marking the cases distinctly, we shall call the *indefinite declension*:

	Singular.			Plural.
	masc.	fem.	neut.	all genders.
N.	e	e	e	en
G.	en	en	en	en
D.	en	en	en	en
A.	en	e	e	en

But if the case, gender, and number, of the substantive are not denoted by a preceding definitive; it is the office of the adjective to do so; and accordingly,

2. If unpreceded by any definitive, it receives the complete declension of the definitives; which we shall therefore call the *definitive declension* (see § 29); and

3. If preceded by one of the eight words with the de-

fective declension (page 57), it supplies the three defective cases, by taking *er* in the nom. masc., *es* in the nom. and acc. neut. gender; and in the other cases, which are already denoted by the preceding definitive, it follows the indefinite declension. This manner of inflecting the adjective, partaking, in three cases, of the definitive declension, and, in the others, of the indefinite, we shall call the *mixed* declension.

It may be added that the grammatical root of the adjective to which the above inflections are to be annexed, is the word found in the dictionary. (See however *Obs.* 4. of this section.)

As an exemplification of the above rules, we will take the adjective *gut*, *good*, which as a concrete is declined thus:

Indefinite Declension.

Singular.			Plural.
masc.	fem.	neut.	all genders.
N. <i>der gute</i>	<i>die gute</i>	<i>das gute</i>	<i>die guten the good.</i>
G. <i>des guten</i>	<i>der guten</i>	<i>des guten</i>	<i>der guten of the good.</i>
D. <i>dem guten</i>	<i>der guten</i>	<i>dem guten</i>	<i>den guten to the good.</i>
A. <i>den guten</i>	<i>die gute</i>	<i>das gute</i>	<i>die guten the good.</i>

Thus the adjectives are declined when preceded, as in the table, by *der*, *die*, *das*, *the* (§ 30), or by any of the definitives with the complete declension, viz. *dieser*, *this*; *jener*, *that*, &c. (see § 29);—as, nom. *der* (*jener*, *jeder*, *welcher*, &c.) *gute Mann*, *the* (*that*, *every*, *which*, &c.) *good man*; *die* (*jene*, *jede*, *welche*, &c.) *gute Frau*, *the* (*that*, *every*, *which*, &c.) *good woman*; *das* (*jenes*, *jedes*, *welches*, &c.) *gute Kind*, *the* (*that*, *every*, *which*, &c.) *good child*;—gen. *des* (*jenes*, *jedes*, *welches*, &c.) *guten Mannes*, *of the* (*of that*, *of every*, *of which*, &c.) *good man*; *der* (*jener*, &c.) *guten Frau*, *of the* (*of that*, &c.) *good woman*; *des* (&c.) *guten Kindes*, *of the* (&c.) *good child*;—dat. *dem* (*jenem*, &c.) *guten Manne*, *to the* (*to that*, &c.) *good man*:—Plur. *die* (*jene*, *alle*, &c.) *guten Männer*, *Frauen*, *Kinder*, *the* (*those*, *all*, &c.) *good men, women, children*, &c.

The adjective has this declension also if *der*, *die*, *das*, preceding it, is compounded, or contracted, with other words; as, *derjenige*, *that*; *derselbe*, *the same* (§ 64); *von* (*von dem*), *of the*; *in's* (*in das*), *into the* (§ 30, *Obs.* 3).

Obs. 1. According to most grammarians, the adjectives take the above indefinite declension likewise after *einiger*, *some*, and after the plurals

mehrere, *several*; etliche, *some*; and beide, *both*. Also after viel, *much*, and wenig, *little*, if these are inflected; but if they are uninflected (§ 66), the adjective has the following definitive declension; as, mit weniger guten Hoffnung, or mit wenig guter Hoffnung, *with little good hope*.

It must however be observed, that after all these words, except beide, the nom. and acc. plural of the adjective occur very often with *e*, instead of *en*: and not unfrequently the *n* of these cases is omitted also after manche, *many*, and alle, *all*; as, einige alte Bücher, *a few old books*; viele neue Häuser, *many new houses*; alle gute Menschen, *all good men*, &c. (see Obs. 8.)

Definitive Declension.

	Singular.			Plural.
	masc.	fem.	neut.	all genders.
N. guter		gute	gutes	gute
G. gutes, or guten*		guter	gutes, or guten*	guter
D. gutem		guter	gutem	guten
A. guten		gute	gutes	gute.

The adjective takes this declension if unpreceded by any definitive; as, nom. guter Wein, *good wine*; gute Milch, *good milk*; gutes Bier, *good beer*;—gen. gutes or guten Weines (or Bieres), *of good wine (or beer)*; guter Milch, *of good milk*;—dat. gutem Weine (Biere), *to good wine (beer)*; guter Milch, *to good milk*, &c.—Plur. nom. gute Männer, Frauen, or Kinder, *good men, women, or children*;—gen. guter Männer, &c., *of good men*, &c.

Thus also, if the adjective is preceded by uninflected numerals (§§ 56 and 57), or by the indeclinable words, genug, *enough*; ein wenig, *a little*; etwas, *some*; nichts, *nothing*; lauter, *nothing but*; as, sechs neue Bücher, *six new books*; ein Vater vier schöner Töchter, *a father of four fine daughters*; allerlei ausländische Moden, *all sorts of foreign fashions*; etwas frisches Wasser mit ein wenig rothem Weine, *some fresh water with a little red wine*; lauter feines Papier, *nothing but fine paper*, &c.

Obs. 2. Adjectives ending in *m*, as, lahm, *lame*; angenehm, *agreeable*, should, according to some grammarians, change the dative inflection *em* into *en*, in order to avoid the repetition of *m*; as, mit lahmen (for lahmem) Füße, *with a lame foot*; von angenehmen Gerüche, *of an agreeable smell*. But this is not often attended to by authors.

* The inflection *es* is more according to analogy than *en*, which is a modern innovation; yet the latter is used more commonly, in order, as it is said, to avoid the disagreeable recurrence of *es*—the substantive having also that termination in the genitive of these genders. If two or more adjectives precede the same substantive, *en* is undoubtedly preferable; as, guten alten Weines, *of good old wine*—not gutes altes.

Mixed Declension.

	Singular.			Plural.
	masc.	fem.	neut.	all genders.
N. mein guter	meine gute	mein gutes	meine guten	
G. meines guten	meiner guten	meines guten	meiner guten	
D. meinem guten	meiner guten	meinem guten	meinen guten	
A. meinen guten	meine gute	mein gutes	meine guten.	

As already observed, p. 97, the adjective takes these inflections after any one of the eight words with the defective declension; as, nom. *mein* (sein, unser, ein, &c.) *guter Bruder*, *my* (*his, our, a, &c.*) *good brother*; *meine* (seine, unsere, eine, &c.) *gute Schwester*, *my* (*his, our, a, &c.*) *good sister*; *mein* (sein, unser, ein) *gutes Kind*, *my* (&c.) *good child*;—gen. *meines* (unseres, &c.) *guten Bruders*, *of my* (*our, &c.*) *good brother*; *meiner* (unserer, &c.) *guten Schwester*, *of my* (*our, &c.*) *good sister*; *meines* (&c.) *guten Kindes*, *of my* (&c.) *good child*;—dat. *meinem guten Bruder*, *to my good brother*, &c.—Plur. nom. *meine* (seine, unsere, &c.) *guten Brüder*, *Schwestern*, *Kinder*, *my* (*his, our, &c.*) *good brothers, sisters, children, &c.*

Obs. 3. The adjective has this declension also after the personal pronouns of the first and second person of both numbers; namely, after *ich, I*; *wir, we*; *du, thou*; *ihr, you*: also after *Sie* and *Er*, if signifying *you* (see § 59, *Obs. 2*); as, nom. *du guter Mann*, *thou good man*; *du gute Frau*, *thou good woman*; *du gutes Kind*, *thou good child*;—(the genitive is unusual in this construction);—dat. *dir guten Manne*, *to thee good man*; *dir guten Frau*, *to thee good woman*; *dir guten Kinde*, *to thee good child*;—accus. *dich guten Mann*, *thee good man*; *dich gute Frau*, *thee good woman*; *dich gutes Kind*, *thee good child*;—Plur. *ihr guten Männer*, *Frauen*, *Kinder*, *you good men, women, children, &c.*

Obs. 4. In the declension of some adjectives a syncope takes place:—1.) *hoch*, *high*, drops the *c* throughout the whole declension (see note † page 14); as, *der hohe*, *des hohen*, &c. 2.) Adjectives ending in *en* may, when inflected, drop the *e* of that syllable; as, *eben*, *even*; *eigen*, *own*—*der ebne*, *des ebnen*; *ein eigner*, *eigne*, &c.—instead of *der ebene*, *ein eigener*, &c. 3.) Those ending in *el* or *er* may drop the *e* of those terminations before any inflection but that of *en*; as, *edel*, *noble*; *dunkel*, *dark*; *bitter*, *bitter*; *mager*, *meagre*—*der edle*, *ein edler*, *ein bitterer*, *magrer*, &c.—instead of *der edele*, *ein bitterer*, &c. But in those cases which require the inflection *en*—namely, nearly the whole of the indefinite declension, and the accusative masculine, and dative plural, of the definitive declension—the *e* of the inflection, but not that of *er* or *el*, may be dropped; as, *den edeln*, *des bittern*, *die dunkeln*, *magern*, &c.—instead of *den edelen*, *des bitteren*, &c. 4.) Adjectives ending in *e* drop this letter through the whole declension; as, *müde*, *tired*; *weise*, *wise*—*der müde*,

des milden, &c. ein weiser, eines weisen; weise Leute, *wise people*; weiser Leute, &c.

Obs. 5. All participles used as concretes must be considered as adjectives, and declined in the same manner. For instance, the participles verehrt, *honoured*; zerbrochen, *broken*; lachend, *laughing*, are inflected thus: der verehrte Vater, *the honoured father*; des verehrten Vaters, dem verehrten Vater, &c.; zerbrochene Gläser, *broken glasses*; zerbrochener Gläser, *of broken glasses*, &c.; ein lachendes Kind, *a laughing child*; eines lachenden Kindes, &c.

Obs. 6. Poets often omit the inflection *es* of the nominative and accusative of the neuter gender; as, ein blind (for blindes) Geschick, *a blind fate*; Guer heilig (for heiliges) Recht, *your sacred right*. This poetical licence excepted, the inflection of the adjective must not be omitted; particularly before other concrete adjectives, as it might then be mistaken for an adverb (see *Obs. 2*, § 50). Thus the expression dieses vortrefflich übersehte Gedicht, signifies *this excellently translated poem*; but dieses vortreffliche, übersehte Gedicht, signifies *this excellent, translated poem*; ein ganz neues Haus, *an entirely new house*;—ein ganzes, neues Haus, *a whole, new house*.

It may however be remarked here, that adjectives in *er*, derived from proper names of places, never admit of any inflection; as, ein Pariser Bürger, *a Parisian citizen*; eines Pariser Bürgers, *of a Parisian citizen*. Several grammarians, indeed, consider such derivatives altogether as substantives.

Most derivatives of numbers, and some other words denoting quantity, are likewise undeclined: see § 57, especially *Obs. 3* of that section respecting ganz, halb, lauter, and voll, and § 66, *Obs. 4* and 5.

Obs. 7. In German, the definitive is sometimes separated from its noun by an intervening noun to which it does not refer: sometimes, again, the definitive refers to the next, and not to the subsequent, noun. In all such cases it must be remembered, that the adjective is influenced by that definitive only which refers to the same substantive as itself; as, mit einer von wahrer Menschenliebe durchdrungenen Seele, *with a soul animated by true philanthropy* (literally, *with a by true philanthropy animated soul*). Here the definitive *ein* refers to Seele, and not to Menschenliebe, which is without a definitive; and consequently, durchdrungen, being preceded (though not immediately) by a definitive referring to its own substantive, has the indefinite inflection, and wahr, having no definitive, has the definite declension. Thus also, durch diese guten Beispiele belehrte Kinder, *children instructed by these good examples*;—and diese, durch gute Beispiele, belehrten Kinder, *these children instructed by good examples*. Hence if a genitive precedes

the noun by which it is governed, the adjective of the latter has the definitive declension, being unpreceded by a definitive belonging to its substantive; as, *meines reichen Nachbars einziger Sohn*, *my rich neighbour's only son*; *dessen schönes Haus und großer Garten*, *his (or whose) fine house and large garden*; *mit dessen schöner Tochter*, *with his (or whose) beautiful daughter*; *mit deren reichem Sohne*, *with her (or their, whose) rich son*: though one must say, *mit seiner schönen Tochter*, *with his beautiful daughter*; *mit ihrem reichen Sohne*, *with her rich son*—the possessives being, at the same time, definitives of the subsequent noun (see § 63, and § 66, *Obs.* 3).

Two or more adjectives preceding the same substantive are declined alike,—each receiving the inflection which belongs to adjectives according to the preceding rules; as, *guter, alter, vortrefflicher Mann*, *good, old, excellent man*; *dieser gute, alte, vortreffliche Mann*, *this good, old, excellent man*; *ein großes, aber nicht bequemes Haus*, *a large, but not convenient house*; *meiner guten, alten Mutter*, *to my good, old mother*; *meine lieben, jungen Freunde*, *my dear, young friends*.

However, in those instances where the rule requires the definitive declension, usage is not uniform with respect to the second and following adjectives, which, in the genitive and dative of both numbers, occur often with *en*, instead of *em* and *er*; as, *mit gutem, alten, rothen Weine, und frischer, kalten Milch*, *with good, old, red wine, and fresh, cold milk*; *guter, alten Weine wegen*, *for the sake of good, old wines*. But this deviation—which had its origin, perhaps, merely in the rapidity of colloquial language, to which the repetition of *er* and *em* is an impediment—is but partial; and, very frequently, the general rule of declining all adjectives alike is observed even in these cases; as, *mit gutem, altem, rothem Weine, und frischer, kalter Milch*; *guter alter Weine wegen*, &c.

Obs. 8. Adelung and some other grammarians give it as a rule, that the second and following adjectives should take the mixed declension, if the first has the definitive; allowing, however, that very frequently they occur with the definitive declension, especially in the nominative and accusative of the plural.

Many of the most recent publications endeavour to introduce a new doctrine with regard to the adjective preceded by another limiting word, whether adjective or definitive. If it is, they say, subordinate to the definitive, or adjective, preceding it, it takes the indefinite, and if co-ordinate with it, the definitive declension. Thus, for instance, viele guten Leute, *many good people*; mit neuer rothen Tinte, *with new red ink*, infer, as they assert, *many of the good people, red ink which is new*: so that the first limiting words refer to substantives already limited by the adjectives preceding them; or, in other words, 'good people,' and 'red ink,' form the species to which 'many' and 'new' refer. But if we wish to imply *many and* (at the same time) *good people, ink which is both new and red*—so that the first limiting words are to refer to the *unqualified* substantive—we must, according to their rule, say, viele, gute Leute; mit neuer, rother Tinte. This distinction is as little warranted by usage as supported by analogy: for it would apply to most, if not all definitives; even to those after which, according to these grammarians themselves, the adjective has invariably the indefinite declension. Thus then we ought to say, dieser, rother Wein, if signifying *this wine, which is red*—in opposition to another wine which is white; nur wegen einer, obgleich ungerechter That, *only for one act, though an unjust one*—these adjectives being co-ordinate with their definitives; and yet the inflection *er* would undoubtedly be a solecism.

§ 52. ADJECTIVES USED AS SUBSTANTIVES.

If a concrete adjective can be referred neither to a preceding nor to a following noun, it has the character of a substantive; as, "*The poor and the rich, the high and the low, all must die*;" "*A treatise on the sublime and beautiful*." In German all three genders of the concrete adjective are frequently used as such substantives, but with a different import; viz.—

The masculine and feminine denote persons,—the masculine, either a male, or one of the species without reference to sex (see § 33, rule 5), the feminine, only a female; as, ein Blinder, *a blind man*; ein Adeligcr, *a noble*; ein Wilder, *a savage*;—eine Blinde, *a blind woman*; eine Adelige, *a noble lady*; eine Wilde, *a female savage*; eine Schöne, *a fair one*.

The neuter gender indicates anything whatever, or several things or parts collectively, or merely a thing or part, possessing the quality in view; as, das Schöne, *the beautiful*

(*all that is beautiful*); *daß Erhabene, the sublime*; *daß Sterbliche an uns, the mortal part (or parts) in us, that which is mortal in us*; *Gutes mit Bösem vergelten, to repay good with evil*; *etwas Neues, something new*; *ein Ganzes, a whole*; *daß Obere, the upper part*; *daß Innere, the interior, &c.*

Obs. 1. This neuter noun is generally considered as denoting quality in abstract; but from the preceding it will be seen, that this is not strictly correct; for some generic substantive, as 'thing,' 'matter,' 'object,' seems to be understood. It is true, the substantive understood, being used often in so vague and general a sense as not to exclude any object of thought, becomes unnoticed, and leaves the attention chiefly fixed on the quality; and thus the adjective becomes apparently an abstract noun. In fact, however, it denotes a species of things characterised by that quality, just as its corresponding masculine denotes a species of persons of that character; the former standing to the latter in the same relation as the pronoun 'whatever' to the pronoun 'whoever.' Thus in the expression, *Hasse das Böse, aber bedaure den Bösen, Hate evil (the bad thing), but pity the evil doer (the bad man)*, the masculine imports every, or any, bad man, the neuter every, or any, bad thing.

These neuter nouns are, therefore, distinct from substantives derived from adjectives by a servile syllable (*e, heit, feit, &c.*), which are real abstracts denoting the quality as divested from all substance; as, *das Wichtige, the important part, or whatever is important—die Wichtigkeit, the importance*; *das Tiefe, the deep part, or whatever is deep—die Tiefe, the depth*; *das Weiße, the white, or whatever is white—die Weiße, the whiteness*; *das Schöne, the beautiful—die Schönheit, or (poetically) die Schöne, the beauty*; *das Erhabene, the sublime—die Erhabenheit, the sublimity.*

Several of these nouns are in English declined like substantives; as, 'the elder,' 'the black,' 'the savage,' 'the evil,' &c.—plur. 'the elders,' 'the blacks,' &c. In German, all concrete adjectives used as substantives retain the adjective declension; as, *der Schwarze, the negro, the black, des Schwarzen, dem Schwarzen, den Schwarzen*; fem. *die Schwarze, the negress, der Schwarzen, der Schwarzen, die Schwarze*; neut. *das Schwarze, the black (thing), des Schwarzen, dem Schwarzen, das Schwarze*; plur. *die Schwarzen, the negroes, or negresses, der Schwarzen, den Schwarzen, die Schwarzen.*—See also the examples at the beginning of this section.

Obs. 2. The neuter is not used in the plural, the plurality being de-

noted collectively by the singular—see the examples in the preceding page. The feminine, according to usage, takes *en* throughout the plural, even in those instances where the usual adjective would take the definitive declension; as, *zwei Schönen* (for *Schöne*), *two fair ones*. We may also observe, that the oblique cases in *er* are unusual with these nouns, and are best avoided. Thus it would sound rather strange to say, *vier Schwarzer wegen*, *on account of four negroes*; *mit seines Bruders Geliebter*, *with his brother's beloved*.

The nouns of this description may easily be known from their import to be adjectives used substantively; and they are, generally, rendered in English also by adjectives*. The following, however, though the corresponding words in English are never used as adjectives, belong to the same class, and must therefore be declined like adjectives:

ein Ausgewanderter, <i>an emigrant.</i>	compounds Ungläubiger, <i>an infidel, &c.)</i>
— Beamter, <i>an officer, a placeman.</i>	ein Heiliger, <i>a saint.</i>
— Bedienter, <i>a man-servant.</i>	— Meineidiger, <i>a perjurer.</i>
— Bekannter, <i>an acquaintance.</i>	— Mitschuldiger, <i>an accomplice.</i>
— Bevollmächtigter, <i>a plenipotentiary.</i>	— Oberster, <i>a colonel.</i>
— Deputirter, <i>a deputy.</i>	— Reisender, <i>a traveller.</i>
— Elender, <i>a wretch.</i>	— Sternkundiger, <i>an astronomer</i> (and the other compounds with <i>kundig</i>).
— Fremder, <i>a stranger.</i>	— Verbannter, <i>an exile (one</i>
— Gefangener, <i>a prisoner.</i>	— Verwiesener, <i>exiled).</i>
— Geistlicher, <i>a clergyman.</i>	— Verwandter, <i>a relation.</i>
— Gelehrter, <i>a scholar, a learned man.</i>	— Verschworner, <i>a conspirator.</i>
— Geliebter, <i>a lover.</i>	— Weiser or Weltweiser, <i>a sage, philosopher.</i>
— Gesandter, <i>an ambassador.</i>	
— Gläubiger†, <i>a believer (and its</i>	

as, ein Verwandter, eines Verwandten, einem Verwandten, &c.; der Verwandte, *the relation*; plur. die Verwandten, *the relations*; Verwandte *relations*. Thus also the feminine gender:

* The learner will, therefore, not confound such substantives as *der Junge*, *the boy*; *die Fremde*, *foreign countries or parts*; *die Schöne*, *the beauty*; *die Weiße*, *the whiteness*, &c. with their kindred adjectives used substantively, *der Junge*, *the young one*; *die Fremde*, *the female stranger*; *die Schöne*, *the fair one*, &c.—the former have the declension of substantives, the latter that of adjectives.

† Gläubiger, *creditor*, is declined like a substantive, gen. Gläubigers, plur. Gläubiger, &c.

die Verwandte (not Verwandtinn), *the female relation*; genitive, der Verwandten, &c.

Obs. 3. On the other hand, in English, most adjectives relating to nations, religions, and sects, are used substantively to denote persons of that nation, religion, &c. In German, the adjective is a distinct word from the substantive, and is, generally, derived from the latter by the annex *isch*; as, ein Portugiese, *a Portuguese*; ein Amerikaner, *an American*—Portugiesische und Amerikanische Schiffe, *Portuguese and American ships*; ein Protestant, *a protestant*—die protestantische Religion, *the Protestant religion*. Deutsch, *German*, is the only adjective of this nature which is used substantively to denote persons; as, ein Deutscher, *a German*; eine Deutsche, *a German woman*; die Deutschen, *the Germans*, &c.

However, the neuter gender of adjectives derived from proper names of nations, is used substantively; but only with reference either to the territory, or to the language—which must be decided by the context. With states, or provinces, having no language of their own, it can refer to the territory only: as, im Preussischen und Baierschen, *in the Prussian and Bavarian territories*. Otherwise it is more generally used with reference to the language; as, im Französischen, *in French*; aus dem Englischen ins Deutsche übersezt, *translated from the English into German*.

The abstract form (§ 50) of these adjectives is also used substantively; but only with reference to language; as, Ich lerne Griechisch, *I learn Greek*; Das ist gutes Deutsch, *that is good German*.

Obs. 4. The abstract form or the root (§ 50) of adjectives signifying colours, stands often as a substantive denoting the name of the colour, or, also the colouring matter itself; as, das Blau des Himmels, *the blue of the sky*; das Abendroth, *the red of evening*; das Hellbunzel, *the clare-obscure*; das Berliner Blau, *Prussian blue*. All such nouns, as well as the few other neuters which are in form like the abstract adjective; as, das Elend, *the misery*; das Uebel, *the evil*; das Recht, *the right*, &c. are real substantives, and declined as such; as, die Lieblichkeit des Abendroths und des Himmelblaus, *the loveliness of the evening red and celestial blue*; die Wurzel des Uebels, *the root of the evil*.

In a few instances, the abstract adjective is used substantively in reference to persons, and denotes people collectively of a certain description; as, Man sah da Alt und Jung, Groß und Klein, versammelt, &c. *old and young, great and small, were there seen assembled*. In this collective sense, as well as when denoting the name of a language (see *Obs. 3*), this noun is indeclinable.

DEGREES OF COMPARISON.

§ 53. The German adjectives, whether of one or more syllables, form the comparative and superlative by annexes;

namely, the comparative by adding *er*, and the superlative by adding *est*, to the uninflected positive or grammatical root. However, the *e* of both annexes must be dropped, if the positive ends in *e*; and that of *est* is generally omitted also in many other adjectives (see *Obs.* 2).—Examples:

Positive.	Comparative.	Superlative.
leicht, <i>light</i> .	leichter, <i>lighter</i> .	leichtest, <i>lightest</i> .
weise, <i>wise</i> .	weiser, <i>wiser</i> .	weisest, <i>wisest</i> .
grausam, <i>cruel</i> .	grausamer, <i>more cruel</i> .	grausamst, <i>most cruel</i> .

Thus also with compounded adjectives: as, edelmüthig, *noble-minded*; kurzichtig, *short-sighted*—comparative, edelmüthiger (not edlermüthig), kurzichtiger—superlative, edelmüthigst, kurzichtigst.

Obs. 1. Adjectives terminating in *el*, *er*, or *en*, often drop the *e* of these terminations in the comparative; as, edel, *noble*; sicher, *safe*; offen, *open*;—comparative, edler, sicherer, offener. This omission is still more frequent, when the comparative is declined (§ 54); as, der edlere Geist, *the nobler mind*; ein sicherer Weg, *a safer way*, &c.

Obs. 2. The ear alone must decide whether *st*, or *est*, is to be added in the superlative. Adjectives ending in a *single* liquid (§ 8), or in *t*, *g*, or *ch*, generally add only *st*; as, kühl, *cool*; zahm, *tame*; schön, *beautiful*; tapfer, *brave*; lieb, *dear*; streng (or strenge—see *Obs.* 3), *severe*; ruhig, *quiet*; herrlich, *excellent*;—superlative, kühlst, zahmst, schönst, tapferst, strengst, &c. On the other hand, those ending in a *lingual* (§ 7) mostly add *est*; as, werth, *worth, worthy*; rund, *round*; süß, *sweet*; rasch, *rash*;—superlative, werthest, rundest, süßest, raschest. However, participles ending in *end*, or *et*, take *st*; as, blühend, *flourishing*; eingebildet, *conceited*;—superl. blühendst, eingebildetst. With adjectives of other final letters, it is optional to add *st* or *est*; as, dick, *thick*; toll, *mad*; reif, *ripe*; frei, *free*, &c.—superl. dickeest or dickst, tolleest or tollst, reifeest or reifeit, freieest or freieit*, &c.

Some of those ending in *ß* form their superlative often by adding *t*, instead of *est*; as, groß, *great*; süß, *sweet*;—superl. größte, süßt (or größeest, süßeest). Those in *isch*, according to some grammarians, also add *t*, instead of *est*; as, barbarisch, *barbarous*; komisch, *comic*;—superl. barbarischst, komischst. But with adjectives of this termination, it is per-

* According to Adelung, adjectives ending in a diphthong should always take *est*; but this is not generally observed.

haps best to avoid the superlative altogether, on account of its harshness ; or to form it by the adverb *am meisten* (§ 55, *Obs.* 3) ; as, *am meisten barbarisch*, *most barbarous*.

Monosyllabic adjectives inflect the vowels *a*, *o*, *u*, when compared, but not the diphthong *au* ; as, *stark*, *strong* ; *roth*, *red* ; *kurz*, *short* ; *rau*, *rough*—comparative, *stärker*, *röther*, *kürzer*, *rauer*—superlative, *stärkest*, *röthest*, *kürzest*, *rauest*.

Except the following monosyllables, which have their vowels unchanged when compared :

<i>barsch</i> , <i>harsh</i> , <i>rough</i> .	<i>knapp</i> , <i>close</i> , <i>strait</i> .	<i>satt</i> , <i>satiated</i> .
<i>blond</i> , <i>fair</i> .	<i>lahm</i> , <i>lame</i> .	<i>schal</i> , <i>flat</i> , <i>insipid</i> .
<i>brav</i> , <i>good</i> , <i>worthy</i> .	<i>laß</i> , <i>weary</i> .	<i>schlaff</i> , <i>slack</i> , <i>loose</i> .
<i>bunt</i> , <i>variegated</i> .	<i>loß</i> , <i>loose</i> .	<i>schlank</i> , <i>slender</i> .
<i>dumpf</i> , <i>dull</i> (of sound), <i>damp</i> .	<i>matt</i> , <i>weak</i> .	<i>schroff</i> , <i>rugged</i> , <i>steep</i> .
<i>fahl</i> and <i>falt</i> , <i>fallow</i> .	<i>morsch</i> , <i>decayed</i> .	<i>starr</i> , <i>stiff</i> .
<i>falsch</i> , <i>false</i> .	<i>nackt</i> , <i>naked</i> .	<i>stolz</i> , <i>proud</i> .
<i>froh</i> , <i>joyful</i> .	<i>platt</i> , <i>flat</i> .	<i>straff</i> , <i>strained</i> , <i>tight</i> .
<i>flach</i> , <i>flat</i> .	<i>plump</i> , <i>clumsy</i> .	<i>stumm</i> , <i>dumb</i> .
<i>glatt</i> , <i>smooth</i> .	<i>rar</i> , <i>rare</i> .	<i>stumpf</i> , <i>blunt</i> , <i>dull</i> .
<i>barsch</i> , <i>harsh</i> .	<i>rasch</i> , <i>quick</i> .	<i>teill</i> , <i>mad</i> .
<i>höhl</i> , <i>hollow</i> .	<i>roh</i> , <i>raw</i> , <i>rude</i> .	<i>voll</i> , <i>full</i> .
<i>hold</i> , <i>kind</i> , <i>dear</i> .	<i>rund</i> , <i>round</i> .	<i>wahr</i> , <i>true</i> .
<i>fahl</i> , <i>bald</i> .	<i>sacht</i> , <i>slow</i> .	<i>wund</i> , <i>wounded</i> , <i>sore</i> .
<i>farg</i> , <i>sparing</i> , <i>stingy</i> .	<i>sanft</i> , <i>soft</i> .	<i>zähm</i> , <i>tame</i> .

and perhaps a few others.

Obs. 3. *Bange*, *afraid* ; *blaß*, *pale* ; *gesund*, *healthy* ; *zart*, *tender*, occur both with, and without, the vowel inflection in their degrees of comparison.—*Lange*, *long*, is compared like a monosyllable—*länger*, *längst* ; as the final *e* of the German adjective does not belong to the root, and is, according to grammarians, merely added for euphony's sake. It is, therefore, mostly omitted in the superlative, if preceded by *g* or *b* ; as, *geringe*, *small* ; *enge*, *narrow* ; *herbe*, *rough*, *sour*—superlative, *geringst*, *engst*, *herbst*.

§ 54. The comparative and superlative, when used in concrete (§ 50), are declined exactly like the positive ; taking, in addition to the annexes *er* and *est*, the inflections of one of the three declensions of adjectives, according to the rules given § 51. For instance, *reich*, *rich* ; *stark*, *strong* ; *groß*, *great* ; *alt*, *old* ; *jung*, *young*, would, as concrete com-

paratives, or superlatives, make *der reichere Mann*, *the richer man*; *deß reichern* (or *reicheren*—see § 51, Obs. 4.) *Mannes*, *of the richer man*; *die reichsten Leute*, *the richest people*; *stärkeres Bier*, *stronger beer*; *stärkern Bieres*, *of stronger beer*; *größere Häuser*, *larger houses*; *größerer Häuser*, *of larger houses*; *mein ältester Bruder*, *my eldest brother*; *meines ältesten Bruders*, *of my eldest brother*; *dessen jüngstes Kind*, *whose youngest child*; *mit dessen jüngstem Kinde*, *with whose youngest child*, &c.—just as we decline *der reiche Mann*, *deß reichen Mannes*, *starkes Bier*, &c.

If the *comparative* is attributed to a substantive by means of a verb, it remains undeclined, like the abstract positive (§ 50); as, *Dieser Mann ist reicher, und seine Schwester ärmer, als ich*, *this man is richer, and his sister poorer, than I*. But if the *superlative* is employed in this manner, it either takes *am*, and is preceded by the word *am*; or it is preceded by *der*, *die*, *daß*, and put in the nominative of the indefinite declension,—that is, it is made a concrete adjective referring to, and agreeing with, its subject; as, *Der zufriedene Mensch ist am reichsten*—or *der reichste* (supply *Mensch*), *the contented man is the richest (man)*; *Jene Völker sind die glücklichsten* (*Völker*)—or *am glücklichsten*—*welche den Gesetzen gehorchen*, *those nations are the happiest (or happiest) which obey the laws*.

It must however be observed, that the two forms, with *am*, or *der*, *die*, *daß*, are optional, only when a comparison between the quality of *different* subjects is implied, as in the preceding examples, where ‘of all men,’ ‘of all nations,’ is supplied by the mind. But if the comparison is between the degrees of a quality belonging to the *same* subject, but under different circumstances, or at different periods, and where in English the superlative is always without an article, the form with *am* alone can be used; as, *Jener Redner ist immer am größten* (not *der größte*), *wenn er sich an die Leidenschaften wendet*, *that orator is always greatest when he addresses the passions*; *Auf dem Lande bin ich am glücklichsten* (not *der glücklichste*), *I am happiest in the country*.

Obs. The superlative with *am* is, properly speaking, the dative of the indefinite declension; as *am* (i. e. *an dem*) *schönsten*, *to* (*at or in*) *the finest*; some substantive, perhaps, having been originally understood. It will therefore be remarked, that the superlative never occurs uninflected as an adjective. The only exception is the compound *allerliebste*, *most charming*, and that only in the sense of a superlative of eminence (see 3. of *Obs.* 3. § 55); as, *Das ist allerliebste*, *that is most charming, excellent*. Indeed, even as an adverb the superlative is never used uninflected, except as a superlative of eminence (see the Adverb).

§ 55. The following form their degrees of comparison irregularly:

gut, <i>good</i> ;	besser, <i>better</i> ;	best, <i>best</i> .
hoch, <i>high</i> ;	höher, <i>higher</i> ;	höchst, <i>highest</i> .
nah, <i>near</i> ;	näher, <i>nearer</i> ;	nächst, <i>nearest</i> .
viel, <i>much, many</i> ;	mehr, <i>more</i> ;	meist or mehrst, <i>most</i> .

Obs. 1. Mehrere signifies *several*,—thus differing from mehr, *more*, which is the comparative of viel. For the declension of viel and mehrere, see the Quantitative Pronouns (§ 66), to which these words properly belong.

The following degrees of comparison have no positive, nearly all of them being derived from adverbs; and some of them are, moreover, irregularly formed:

Comparative.	Superlative.
der äussere, <i>the outer, exterior</i> ,	der äusserste.
— innere, <i>the inner, interior</i> ,	— innerste.
— hintere, <i>the hinder</i> ,	— hinterste.
— vordere, <i>the fore, anterior</i> ,	— vorderste.
— mittlere, <i>the middle (one)</i> ,	— mittelste.
— obere, <i>the upper, superior</i> ,	— oberste.
— untere, <i>the lower, inferior</i> ,	— unterste.
— öftere*, <i>the more frequent</i> ,	— öfterste or öfteste.
— erstere, <i>the former</i> ,	— erste, <i>first</i> .
— letztere, <i>the latter</i> ,	— letzte, <i>last</i> .
— mindere, <i>the lesser</i> ,	— mindeste, <i>the least</i> .

Obs. 2. For the positive of minder, wenig is used, its own positive *min* having become obsolete.

* The positive oft is used only as an adverb.

The positives of *erstere* and *lestere*—namely *ehr* and *lat*—having probably become obsolete before the want of their comparatives was felt, the latter were formed, contrary to analogy, from the more familiar superlatives *erste* and *letzte*.

The contrary seems to have been the case with most of the other defectives of the above list; the comparatives were first formed,—and, indeed, from adverbs and prepositions,—and from those again the superlatives; but, probably, at a later period*.

Obs. 3. Instead of the annexes *er* and *est*, the adverbs *mehr*, *more*, and *am meisten*, *most*, are sometimes used, as in English, to form the degrees of comparison;—namely,

1. With the adjectives mentioned in § 50, *Obs. 3*, as being used in abstract only; as, *gram*, *averse*; *feind*, *hostile*; *leid*, *sorry*;—comparative, *mehr gram*, *mehr feind*, *mehr leid*;—superlative, *am meisten gram*, &c.

2. If the degree of one quality is compared with that of another; as, *Das war mehr glücklich als weise*, *that was more fortunate than wise*.

3. With many participles, particularly such as imply something transitory or temporary, denoting either an action, or state, with reference to a particular point of time; and which thus, even as concretes, retain to a certain degree the nature of their primitive, the verb; as, *Sie war von allen am meisten beleidigt*, *she was most offended of all*; *der noch mehr zitternde (or erschrockene) Knabe*, *the yet more trembling (or frightened) boy*. The participles ‘offended’ and ‘trembling,’ in these examples, refer to a particular time known from the context. This partaking of the verb is especially felt, if they govern a case; or when, with participles past, the

* These comparatives having apparently the import of positives, led *Ade- lung* to consider them as such also in form, and to take the ending *er* in these words as a mere syllable of derivation—and belonging therefore to the grammatical root or positive—and not as a comparative annex. But as the comparative is, from its relative nature, less definite, in the degree of intenseness which it expresses, than the positive, and is often applicable to substantives to which the latter could not be ascribed (as a man may be younger than another without being young), so it is sometimes employed to express a lower degree of the quality, and consequently implying a greater extent with regard to the substantive which it qualifies, than that which the positive would convey. Thus the expression “the lower classes” includes many men who could not, in an absolute sense, be called low. “The earlier part of his life” denotes a lesser degree of earliness, and therefore incloses a larger portion of time, than “early.” The above adjectives *äußere*, *innere*, &c. are comparatives of the same description, since they denote less marked limits than their primitives *außen*, *innen*, &c. In the same manner *öftere* signifies a less decided frequency than the positive *oft*, *often*. And *erstere*, *letztere*, and *mehrere*, being considered as such indefinite comparatives,—if so we may call them,—there can be no inconsistency in the former two being derived from the superlatives *erste* and *letzte*, and the latter from the comparative *mehr*; since they are intended to denote a less definite idea than the words from which they are derived.

agent is particularly mentioned. Thus, though we could say *die drückendsten Sorgen*, *the most oppressive cares*; *die verachtetsten Menschen*, *the most despised men*; we must say *die mich am meisten drückenden Sorgen*, *the cares which most oppress me*; *die von der Welt am meisten verachteten Menschen*, *the men most despised by the world*. But if the participle is used in a sense in which it denotes something permanent or habitual, and may therefore serve as a characteristic of a substantive, it takes, like the usual adjectives, the terminations *er* and *est* when compared; as, *ein reizenderes Mädchen*, *a more charming girl*; *der blühendste Staat*, *the most flourishing state*; *die abgehärtetsten Menschen*, *the most hardened men*,—from the participles *reizend*, *blühend*, and *abgehärtete*.

Obs. 4. With regard to the use of other adverbs in the comparison of adjectives, we observe :

1. Diminution of quality is always formed by the adverbs *minder* or *weniger*, *less*, and *am mindesten* or *am wenigsten*, *least*,—just as in English; as, *Das ist noch minder verzeihlich*, *that is still less pardonable*; *Das ist am wenigsten rathsam*, *that is least advisable*. The expression *nichts weniger als*, imports *anything but*; as, *Er ist nichts weniger als gelehrt*, *he is anything but learned*.

2. An equal degree of two compared objects is denoted by *so* or *eben so*, and *als* or *wie*; as, *Ich bin so (or eben so) reich als (or wie) er*, *I am as (or just as) rich as he*.

3. The superlative of eminence—that is, a higher degree than the common standard of the quality in view, without any comparison with that of other substantives—is always expressed in German by means of adverbs; as, *eine äußerst schöne (not schönste) Frau*, *a most beautiful woman*; *sehr vortrefflich*, *most excellent*; *außersordentlich (or höchst) vergnügt*, *uncommonly (or highly) pleased*. Except, *a*) in addressing a person, when the terminal superlative is often employed as a superlative of eminence; as, *theuerster Vater*, *dearest father*; *wertbesten Freund*, *most worthy friend*. *b*) The superlative *allerliebste*, *most charming*; as, *ein allerliebsteß Kind*, *a most charming child*.

4. Adverbs are often added also to the terminal comparison, as in English, for the purpose of heightening the degree of superiority; as, *viel (or weit) schöner*, *much (or far) more beautiful*; *bei weitem der schönste*, *the finest by far*. *Aller*, *of all*, is often added to the superlative for the same purpose; as, *das allermerkwürdigste Jahr*, *the most remarkable year (of all)*.

NUMERALS.

§ 56. The following lists exhibit the *Cardinal* and *Ordinal* numbers. It will be seen from them, 1.) that, with

the exception of *erste*, *dritte*, and *achte*, the latter are derived from the former merely by terminations;—namely, up to *nineteen*, by annexing *te*; and from *twenty* upwards, by annexing *ste*. 2.) In compounded numbers the last alone receives the ordinal annex, as in English.

Cardinals.

- 1, *eins*, or *ein*, *eine*, *ein*.
- 2, *zwei*.
- 3, *drei*.
- 4, *vier*.
- 5, *fünf*.
- 6, *sechs* *.
- 7, *sieben*.
- 8, *acht*.
- 9, *neun*.
- 10, *zehn*, or *zehn*.
- 11, *elf* or *eilf*.
- 12, *zwölf*.
- 13, *dreizehn*.
- 14, *vierzehn*.
- 15, *fünfzehn*, or *funfzehn*.
- 16, *sechzehn* *.
- 17, *siebenzehn*, or *siebzehn*.
- 18, *achtzehn*.
- 19, *neunzehn*.
- 20, *zwanzig*.
- 21, *ein und zwanzig*.
- 22, *zwei und zwanzig*.
- 23, *drei und zwanzig*.
- 24, *vier und zwanzig*.
- 25, *fünf und zwanzig*.
- 26, *sechs und zwanzig*.
- 27, *sieben und zwanzig*.
- 28, *acht und zwanzig*.
- 29, *neun und zwanzig*.
- 30, *dreißig* (not *dreizig*).
- 31, *ein und dreißig*.
- 32, *zwei und dreißig*, &c.
- 40, *vierzig*.

Ordinals.

- 1st, *der, die, das erste*.
- 2nd, ——— *zweite*.
- 3rd, ——— *dritte*.
- 4th, ——— *vierte*.
- 5th, ——— *fünfte*.
- 6th, ——— *sechste*.
- 7th, ——— *siebente*.
- 8th, ——— *achte*.
- 9th, ——— *neunte*.
- 10th, ——— *zehnte*.
- 11th, ——— *elfte*,
- 12th, ——— *zwölfte*.
- 13th, ——— *dreizehnte*.
- 14th, ——— *vierzehnte*.
- 15th, ——— *fünfzehnte*.
- 16th, ——— *sechzehnte*.
- 17th, ——— *siebenzehnte*.
- 18th, ——— *achtzehnte*.
- 19th, ——— *neunzehnte*.
- 20th, ——— *zwanzigste*.
- 21st, ——— *ein und zwanzigste*.
- 22nd, ——— *zwei und zwanzigste*.
- 23rd, ——— *drei und zwanzigste*.
- 24th, ——— *vier und zwanzigste*.
- 25th, ——— *fünf und zwanzigste*.
- 26th, ——— *sechs und zwanzigste*.
- 27th, ——— *sieben und zwanzigste*.
- 28th, ——— *acht und zwanzigste*.
- 29th, ——— *neun und zwanzigste*.
- 30th, ——— *dreißigste*.
- 31st, ——— *ein und dreißigste*.
- 32nd, ——— *zwei und dreißigste*.
- 40th, ——— *vierzigste*.

* It will be observed, that the final *s* of *sechs* being dropped in *sechzehn* and *sechzig*, the *ch* in these last two words is not pronounced like *t*, but resumes its usual sound. See p. 15.

41, ein und vierzig.
 50, fünfzig or funfzig.
 60, sechzig.
 70, siebenzig, or siebzig.
 80, achtzig.
 90, neunzig.
 100, hundert.
 101, hundert und ein.
 102, hundert und zwei, &c.
 200, zwei hundert.
 300, drei hundert.
 1000, tausend.
 1001, tausend und ein, &c.
 10,000, zehn tausend.
 100,000, hundert tausend.
 1,000,000, eine Million.

41st, der, die, das ein und vierzigste.
 50th, ——— fünfzigste.
 60th, ——— sechzigste.
 70th, ——— siebenzigste.
 80th, ——— achtzigste.
 90th, ——— neunzigste.
 100th, ——— hundertste.
 101st, ——— hundert und erste.
 102nd, ——— hundert und zweite.
 200th, ——— zwei hundertste.
 300th, ——— drei hundertste.
 1000th, ——— tausendste.
 1001st, ——— tausend und erste.
 10,000th, ——— zehn tausendste.
 100,000th, ——— hundert tausendste.
 1,000,000th, ——— millionste.

Obs. 1. In the composition of numbers the same order is observed as in English, with the exception that the units always precede the tens; as, sechs tausend drei hundert (und) acht und zwanzig, 6328; zwei Millionen, drei (mal) hundert (und) sieben und neunzig tausend, ein hundert (und) neun und vierzig, 2,397,149; der tausend fünf und dreißigste, the 1035th. The words in brackets may be omitted. Instead of ein tausend zwei hundert, drei hundert, &c. 1200, 1300, &c. we may say zwölf hundert, dreizehn hundert,—as in English.

Million, *million*; Billion, *billion*, &c. are feminine substantives, and always take the regular inflection *en* in the plural:—see the second of the above examples.

Respecting the declension of these numerals, the following rules must be observed:—

1st. *Ein* is indeclinable, being always used without any reference to a substantive; as in counting, *ein*, *zwei*, &c.; *hundert und ein*, 101; *Es schlägt ein*, *it is striking one*. It is never used before tens; as, *ein* (not *ein*) *und zwanzig*, 21.

The form *ein*, *eine*, *ein*, always refers to a substantive; and, if not preceded by a definitive, is declined like *mein* (§ 29); and consequently it must take the complete declension if a substantive be understood—see page 57; as, *nur ein Sohn und eine Tochter*, *only one son and one daughter*; *Er hatte nur einen Thaler bei sich*, *he had but one dollar with him*;—*einer dieser Knaben*, *one (boy) of these boys*. But if preceded by another

definitive, it is declined like an adjective;—*der eine, des einen, dem einen, &c.*; *mein eines Pferd, one of my horses* (literally, *my one horse*); *dieses eine Mal, this once*. In opposition to *die andern, the others*, it is even used in the plural (similar to the French *les uns*); as, *Die einen sagten dieses, und die andern jenes, the one (literally ones) said this, and the other (others) that*. When this numeral is preceded, but not followed by others, the above rules still obtain; as, *tausend und eine Nacht, A Thousand and One Nights*; eine Uebersetzung der tausend und einen Nacht, *a translation of the Thousand and One Nights* (i. e. the Arabian Nights). But before tens, *ein* is indeclinable; as, *ein und zwanzig Tage* (or *Nächte*), *21 days (or nights)*.

Obs. 2. The numeral *ein* is one and the same word with the indefinite article, differing only in the pronunciation;—the former having the verbal accent, from a contradistinction being implied, while the latter has not; as, *ein' Haus, one house*—*ein Haus', a house*. The same distinction is observed between *einmal* denoting *once, a single time*,—where *ein* is the numeral, and therefore emphatic,—and *einmal, once upon a time*,—where *ein* is the article, and therefore without accent.

Some authors distinguish the numeral by a capital (*Ein*); and yet, very inconsistently, make no difference between the demonstrative pronoun *der, that* (§ 64), and the definite article *der, the*; though the case is exactly similar, the article *der* being merely the demonstrative without emphasis; so that accentuation is the only difference between them; as, *der Mann, that man*;—*der Mann', the man*.

2dly. *Zwei* and *drei*, if unpreceded by a definitive, take the regular inflection *er* in the genitive; as, *der Erbe dreier Königreiche, the heir of three kingdoms*; *zweier Dinge wegen, on account of two things*. If followed by an adjective, either the latter, or the numeral, may take *er*; as, *ein Vater zweier schönen*—or *zwei schöner*—*Töchter, a father of two fine daughters*. But when preceded by a definitive, the numeral is never inflected in the genitive; as, *der Erbe dieser drei Königreiche, the heir of these three kingdoms*; *der Vater der zwei schönen Töchter, the father of the two fine daughters*.

Obs. 3. *Zwei* had formerly a different termination for each gender; namely, *zween* for the masculine, *zwo* for the feminine, and *zwei* for the

neuter. But this distinction is now obsolete; and, poetry excepted, where *zween* and *zwo* yet occur sometimes, *zwei* is now used for all genders.

3dly. The other cardinals are not declined, except in the dative, where all cardinals from two upwards, take *en*, if referring to a substantive which is not expressed; as, *Wähle auß fünfen* (or *auß fünf Dingen*) *eines*, *choose one out of five (things)*; *Das ist einer von den zwölfen*, *that is one of the twelve*; *auf allen vieren kriechen*, *to creep on all fours*; *es mit dreien aufnehmen*, *to be a match for three*. *Sieben* however, according to most grammarians, remains unaltered in all cases. In colloquial language, the numbers from 4 to 12 occur sometimes in the nominative and accusative with *e*, if not followed by the noun to which they refer; as, *Es waren unser sechs*, *there were six of us*; *Ich sah ihrer fünfe*, *I saw five of them*.

Obs. 4. *Hundert* and *tausend* admit of the numeral *ein*, but not of the indefinite article; and *ein hundert* therefore always corresponds to the English *one hundred*, but not to *a hundred*, for which we say in German *hundert* merely; as, *im Jahre ein tausend ein hundert und sechs und zwanzig*, *in the year 1126*; *ein hundert* (or *hundert*) *und vierzig Pfund*, *one hundred* (or *a hundred*) *and forty pounds*; *tausend* (not *ein tausend*) *Mal*, *a thousand times*; *vor hundert Jahren*, *a hundred years ago*.

Hundert and *tausend* are also used as neuter substantives, to denote these numbers collectively, or rather as round numbers,—similar to the substantives *Duzend*, *dozen*, and *Schock*, *a number of 60*; as, *Was kostet das hundert* (or *Tausend*) *von diesen Nägeln?* *what does the hundred* (or *the thousand*) *of these nails cost?* The plural of these nouns answers generally to the English plurals *hundreds* and *thousands*; as, *Hunderte*, *ia Tausende*, *haben es gesehen*, *hundreds, nay thousands, have seen it*.

Obs. 5. All the cardinals may be used as feminine substantives, to denote figures, or the numbers on playing-cards; as, *eine Eins*, *a one*. As such they take the regular inflection *en* in the plural; as, *zwei Einsen*, *two ones*; *drei römische Fünfen*, *three Roman fives*. Except *sieben* and *zehn*, which, terminating in *en*, do not add another *en* in the plural.

Obs. 6. A cardinal preceded by *je*, or the repetition of such a number with *und*—whether preceded by *je* or not—denotes *a general division of objects, according to the number mentioned*; as, *je drei*, or *je drei und drei*, or merely *drei und drei*, *three and three, every three, three at a time*; *je vier*, or *vier und vier*, *four and four, every four, &c.*

The words *an die, on the*, before a cardinal, signify *nearly or about* the number in question; as, *an die fünfzig, about 50*. Einige, *some*, before any of the tens, denotes *and odd*; as, *einige dreißig* (better *einige und dreißig*), *thirty and odd*. But *einige hundert, tausend, or Millionen*, signifies *some hundred, thousand, or millions*; as, *einige hundert* (or *tausend*) *Pfund, some hundred* (or *thousand*) *pounds*.

4thly. The ordinal numbers are declined exactly like adjectives; as, *der erste Mann, the first man*; *des ersten Mannes, of the first man*; *die ersten Tage, the first days*; *sein zweiter Sohn, his second son*; *zehntes Capitel, tenth chapter*.

Obs. 7. Der (die, das) wie vielte, which is derived from *wie viel, how many*, by the ordinal annex *ste*, and declined like an adjective, may be considered as an ordinal interrogative. It denotes *which in the order of the number?* so that an ordinal number is expected in answer; as, *Den wie vielten (Tag) des Monats haben wir heute?* *what day of the month have we to-day?*

Obs. 8. Beide, *both*, and der andere, *the other*, are also considered as numerals; the former as a cardinal, and the latter as its ordinal. They are both declined like adjectives. Beide is, generally, in the plural number, agreeably to its nature; as, *beide, beider, beiden, beide*; *die beiden, der beiden, &c.* However, in reference to two preceding propositions, it is usually put in the neuter singular; as, *Wir müssen siegen, oder sterben; beides ist ruhmvoll, we must conquer or die; both are glorious*.

Sometimes beide is used for *zwei, two*; as, *Wähle eines von beiden, choose one of the two*; *Die beiden jüngsten sind noch in der Schule, the two youngest are yet at school*. It will be seen from these examples, that the article precedes beide: but other definitives, too, may precede it; as, *diese beiden Häuser, both these houses*; *meine beiden Brüder, both my brothers*. As in English, it may also be separated from its noun by the verb; as, *Meine Brüder waren beide dort, my brothers were both there*.

Der andere, *the other*, had formerly the import of *der zweite, the second*, and is still used so in a few expressions; as, *Die Gewohnheit ist die andere Natur, custom is a second nature*.—See also *anderthalk*, and *selbander*, page 119. The English *another*, signifying *one more*, must be rendered by *noch ein*; as, *Bring another bottle, bringe noch eine Flasche*;—eine andere Flasche would mean *another instead of this*.

§ 57. We shall briefly notice here several compounds and derivatives formed from the preceding two classes.

I. From the cardinals are formed:—

1. Compounds with *fach, fold*; as, *zweifach, twofold*; *dreifach, threefold, &c.* Similar compounds with *fältig, as*

zweifältig, *twofold*, &c., were formerly current, but are now getting into disuse; except *hundertfältig*, *hundredfold*; and *tausendfältig*, *thousandfold*. *Einfältig* has now assumed the import of *simple-hearted*, *silly*, thus differing from *einfach*, which denotes *simple*, *unaffected*.—All these compounds are adjectives, and declined as such.

2. Compounds in *erlei*, *sorts of*; as, *zweierlei Äpfel*, *two sorts of apples*; *sechserlei Weine*, *six sorts of wine*; *einerlei*, *one sort, the same*. These compounds, though used as adjectives, are not declined; probably because their last component part, viz. *lei* (for the *er* preceding it is merely a genitive inflection), is an obsolete substantive, denoting *kind*.

3. Compounds with *mal* (or *mahl*), *time*; as, *dreimal*, *three times*; *viermal*, *four times*, &c.

Obs. 1. *Mal* is written separately after ordinals, or when a definitive precedes the number; as, *das dritte Mal*, *the third time*; *die letzten vier Male*, *the last four times*. Some authors, indeed, and perhaps more correctly, never compound the number with *Mal*, but write *drei Mal*, *vier Mal*, &c.; except *einmal*, if denoting *once upon a time* (see § 56, Obs. 2), which is always written as one word. We may also observe here, that these compounds may be formed into adjectives by the annex *ig*; as, *viermalig*, *of four times*; *die hundertmalige Wiederholung*, *the repetition of a hundred times*. See also the Formation of Words.

4.) Substantives in *er*, denoting an object of which the number forms some characteristic, known from the context, or usage; as, *ein Sechziger*, *a man of sixty*; *ein Zwölfer*, *a piece of money of the value of 12 Kreuzer* (about four pence); *ein Elfer*, *wine of the year of 1811*.

II. From the ordinals are formed:—

1. Compounds with *halb*, *half*, denoting a half less than the number indicates; as, *dritthalb* (or *drittehalb*) *Stunden*, *two hours and a half* (literally, *third half hours*); *vierthalb* (or *vierttehalb*) *Jahre*, *three years and a half*. For *zweithalb*, we say *anderthalb*; as, *anderthalb Meilen*, *a mile and a half*.*

* These compounds must not be confounded with *halb* preceded by a cardinal number; which would signify *as many halves as the number indicates*. Thus, *drei halbe Gulden*, *three half-guilders*; *drittehalb Gulden*, *two guilders and a half*.

These compounds are indeclinable; and, as may be seen from the preceding examples, the substantive following them is always in the plural number, even after *anderthalb*.

2. Compounds with *selb* or *selbst*, denoting *with as many others as the number indicates, less one*; as, *selbdritte* or *selbst-dritte*, *with two others*; *Er kam selbsiebente*, *he came with six others* (literally, *himself the seventh*); *selbander*, *with another*.

—See § 56, *Obs.* 8.

3. Adverbs in *enß*, answering to the English numeral adverbs in *ly*; as, *erstenß*, *firstly*; *zweitenß*, *secondly*; *drittenß*, *thirdly*, &c.

Obs. 2. To the foregoing class we may also refer *erstlich*, *firstly*, which is used indiscriminately with *erstenß*; and *letztenß*, *lastly*,—its primitive *leßt*, *last*, having the nature of an ordinal. *Erst* or *zuerst*, *at first*; and *leßt*, *at last*, refer to successive events; as, *Erst kam er, dann sie, und leßt ihre Schwester*, *first he came, then she, and at last her sister*. *Erst* and *leßt*, being superlatives (see page 111), have also the forms *am ersten*, and *am letzten*; which, like all superlatives with *am*, imply a comparison (see the Adverbs); as, *Ich sah es am ersten*, *I saw it first* (of all).

4. Substantives in *el* denoting fractions; as, *ein Drittel*, $\frac{1}{3}$; *zwei Fünftel*, $\frac{2}{5}$; *neun Zwanzigstel*, $\frac{9}{20}$. Except the fraction $\frac{1}{2}$, which is not expressed by *ein Zweitel*, but either by the substantive *Hälfte*, or by the adjective *halb*; as, *die Hälfte eines Apfels*, *the half of an apple*; *die andere Hälfte*, *the other half*; *eine halbe Stunde*, *half an hour*; *mein halbes Vermögen*, *half my property*.

Obs. 3. The adjectives *halb*, *half*, and *ganz*, *entire*, or *all*, remain uninflected before names of places; as, *halb London*, *half London*; *ganz Deutschland*, *all Germany*. However, when the article precedes the proper name (§ 49, *Obs.* 4.), these adjectives are inflected; as, *die halbe Schweiz*, *half Switzerland*; *das ganze protestantische Deutschland*, *the whole of Protestant Germany*. If not referring to the quantity of the nouns following them, but to the substance or composition of another object, they are not declined; as, *ein Wesen halb Mensch und halb Engel*, *a being half man and half angel*; *er ist ganz Liebe*, *he is all love*; *sie ist ganz Auge*, *she is all eye*. In fact, *ganz* and *halb* in such cases are not adjectives, but adverbs of the same nature as *partly* and *entirely*.—The words *sauber* and *eitel*, in the sense of *none but*, or *nothing but*, are adverbs of a similar description; for they do not limit the noun follow-

ing them, but merely exclude others from the proposition, just like the adverb *nur*, *only*, *exclusively*; as, *Lauter* (or *eitel*) *Kinder* waren dort, *none but children* (*children exclusively*) *were there*. *Voll*, *full*, remains likewise undeclined, like *gan*z and *halb*, if it does not refer to the following substantive; but if qualifying the following noun, it is declined like any other adjective; as, *ein Glas voll Wein*, *a glass full of wine*; *voll Freude*, *full of joy*; *ein volles Glas*, *a full glass*; *in vollem Laufe*, *in full course*.

THE PRONOUN

may be divided into two principal classes,—viz. into *personal* and *definitive* pronouns. The personal are pure pronouns, their chief function being to supply the place of nouns. All the others, though also frequently employed as substitutes for nouns, and hence justly reckoned among the pronouns, seem chiefly intended to define the nouns to which they refer, either with regard to their individuality, or their extent; and may, therefore, be comprehended under the general name of definitive pronouns *. We do not except even the relatives; for they too point out a noun, though a preceding instead of a following one; on which account they are by some grammarians, not improperly, called *retrospective* demonstratives †.

This arrangement of the pronouns is also in perfect agreement with their declension; and has, therefore, its practical utility. For the personal pronouns are declined in a manner peculiar to themselves; whilst the others take, with a few deviations, the definitive declension; which, as we have seen, is also the declension of the article (§ 30), and sometimes of the adjective (§ 51).

* It will, consequently, not be considered inconsistent, that, for practical purposes, most of these words have been briefly noticed before (§ 29) as definitives, and are here treated in detail as pronouns; since they partake of the nature both of definitives and of pronouns.—Compare note *, page 133.

† Hence the words *der*, *die*, *das* in German, as well as the English *that*, and their corresponding words in several other languages, are used both as relatives and demonstratives. It is therefore incorrect of some grammarians to say, *that who* is equivalent to *and he*; since the relative is not co-ordinate with the noun to which it refers, but subordinate to it, like other definitives.

To the personals belong also the *reflective* (§ 60), and the *indefinite*, pronouns *jemand*, *somebody*, &c. (§ 61). Subdivisions of the *definitive* pronouns are, the *possessive* (see however § 63), the *demonstrative*, the *relative*, and the *quantitative** pronouns.

§ 59. PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

First Person.

Singular.		Plural.
N. ich,	<i>I.</i>	wir, <i>we.</i>
G. meiner,	<i>of me.</i>	unser, <i>of us.</i>
D. mir,	<i>to me.</i>	uns, <i>to us.</i>
A. mich,	<i>me.</i>	uns, <i>us.</i>

Second Person.

N. du,	<i>thou.</i>	ihr, <i>you or ye.</i>
G. deiner,	<i>of thee.</i>	euer, <i>of you.</i>
D. dir,	<i>to thee.</i>	euch, <i>to you.</i>
A. dich,	<i>thee.</i>	euch, <i>you.</i>

Third Person.

masc.	Singular.		Plural
	fem.	neut.	for all genders.
N. er, <i>he†.</i>	sie, <i>she†.</i>	es, <i>it.</i>	sie, <i>they.</i>
G. seiner, <i>of him.</i>	ihrer, <i>of her.</i>	seiner, <i>of it.</i>	ihrer, <i>of them.</i>
D. ihm, <i>to him.</i>	ihr, <i>to her.</i>	ihm, <i>to it.</i>	ihnen, <i>to them.</i>
A. ihn, <i>him.</i>	sie, <i>her.</i>	es, <i>it.</i>	sie, <i>them.</i>

* These last pronouns are, in other grammars, arranged under different names. However, as they all relate to quantity (see § 66), the present appellation is perhaps best adapted to their character. The German grammarians refer them to the numbers, under the name of indefinite numerals. But, as they bear the same analogy to the demonstratives as the indefinite article to the definite, it seems inconsistent to refer the former two to different parts of speech, whilst the latter two are universally considered as belonging to one and the same. It is true, the numbers themselves might be reckoned among the quantitative pronouns; but they have so many peculiarities, and are so often used without any reference to substantives, that they are, with more practical utility, treated by themselves.

† The learner will recollect, from § 31, that in German a great many masculine and feminine substantives are destitute of sex; and therefore the pronouns *er* and *sie*, referring to such nouns, must be rendered in English by *it*.

Obs. 1. The genitives of these pronouns were formerly the same as their derivatives, the possessive pronouns,—viz. *mein, dein, sein, unser, euer, ihr* *,—but, in modern times, they have, with the exception of *unser* and *euere*, received the addition of *er*,—*meiner, deiner, &c.* They are, however, yet used in their original form:—1.) With the verb *seyn*; as, *der Hut ist mein (dein, ihr, unser, &c.), the hat is mine, (thine, hers, ours, &c.)*†. 2.) In poetry, after several other verbs which govern the genitive; as, *Erbarme dich sein, have pity on him; Vergiß mein nicht, forget me not.* However, *ihr, of her, or of them*, does not occur after these verbs without its modern termination *er (ihrer)*. 3.) If followed by the prepositions *wegen, willen, or halber, on account of*; in which case the syllable *et* is annexed to them, and they are combined with the preposition into one word; as, *meinewegen, on my account; deinetwillen, for thy sake; ibretwegen, on her account; unserethalben, for our sake, &c.*

Obs. 2. In addressing an individual, *Du, thou*, as the second person singular, should exclusively be used; and its plural *Ihr, you*, in addressing more than one. But, as in most modern European languages, the second person singular has been thought too abrupt and uncereimonious towards higher persons, and accordingly other pronouns have been substituted for it. The first innovation was, to use *Ihr* for *Du*, as in English. Afterwards the third person singular was substituted,—namely *Er*, in addressing a male, and *Sie*, a female. But the plural being considered more dignified than the singular, the third person plural was at last adopted; and this custom is now universally established in polite conversation, both in addressing one and more persons. The former pronouns of address, however, are not entirely disused: *Du* is employed in all cases where conventional politeness would be considered out of place;—namely, 1.) In elevated language, as in poetry, and in addressing the Deity. 2.) With near relatives, and with intimate friends†. 3.) With inferiors, as a mark, sometimes of uncereimonious superiority, and sometimes of contempt.—*Ihr* is used in addressing more than one person, whom singly we would not address by *Sie, they*. Also towards individuals of those classes which are not accustomed to refined manners; and they themselves likewise use it towards each other.—*Er* and *Sie (she)* are used often in addressing menials, and inferiors of no education.

* In still more remote times, this genitive was *ihero*, which, before titles, is still sometimes found as a possessive pronoun; as, *Ihero Majestät, Her or Your Majesty* (see *Obs. 2*).

† *Wenn sie niemand's ist, als Euer, if she is nobody's but your's* (Lessing); in which *euere* is obviously in the same case as *niemand's*.

‡ There are some expressions in German relating to this practice; as, *Duſſbruder* (from *duſſen, to thou*), *an intimate*; *auf du und du mit jemanden leben, to live on intimate terms with one*.

The reflective and possessive pronouns, as well as the verb, referring to the person addressed, must, of course, correspond with the personal pronoun in number and person: thus, for instance, "you think only of yourself and your son," would be rendered, either by *Du denkst nur an Dich und Deinen Sohn*, or *Ihr denkt nur an Euch und Eueren Sohn*, or *Er* (or *Sie*, *she*) *denkt nur an sich und Seinen* (or *Ihren*, *her*) *Sohn*, or *Sie denken nur an sich und Ihren Sohn* *. All these different shades are not without use to authors, in delineating manners and characters.

We may further notice here, that, in reference to titles by which persons of quality are addressed, *Euer*, the possessive of the second person plural, is generally used, as the older, and therefore more formal, mode of address, retaining, in that case, its old orthography of *w* instead of *u*, and abbreviated thus, *EW.*; as, *EW.* (pronounced *euer*, or, if in the genitive or dative case, *euerer*) *Exzellenz*, *Your Excellency*; *EW. Majestät*, *Your Majesty* †. See also note (*), page 122, and § 64, *Obs.* 3.

Obs. 3. The pronoun *es*, like *it* in English, is used sometimes without reference to anything mentioned in the sentence; and is then, from its indeterminate import, called an indefinite pronoun. It is used thus in two ways:

1. To denote an unascertained object, or objects, of our perception; as, *Es ist mein bruder*, *it* (namely, the object previously seen or heard) *is my brother*; *Wer reitet so spät durch Nacht und Wind? Es ist der Vater mit seinem Kind*, *who rides so late in night and wind? it is the father with his child*; *es waren meine Schwestern*, *they* (literally *it*) *were my sisters*; *ich bin es*, *it is I*. The verb agrees, as may be seen from the last two examples, with the ascertained object, and not with *es*. We may also remark, that, contrary to the English idiom, the in-

* *Sie* denoting *you*, and *Ihr* denoting *your*, begin always with a capital; and are thus distinguished from *sie*, *she*, or *they*; and *ihr*, *their*, or *her*.—See § 22, rule 5. As a qualification of that rule, we will add here, that *du* and *sein* are, except in letters, very frequently written without a capital.

† These forms of address, which, as Adelung observes, were in the Middle Ages adopted in most European languages from the Latin of those times, are supposed to have given rise, in German, to the subsequent use of the pronoun of the third person instead of that of the second. For, from addressing persons of rank by their dignity rather than in person, and thereby placing the verb in the third instead of the second person, a habit may gradually have been created, of considering the addressing in the third person more respectful than in the second. It is, however, curious, that we find a similar example recorded in the Bible itself, and that among the Nomades of the most remote times:—Judah addressed Joseph thus: "*My Lord asked his servants*, saying, *Have ye a father or a brother? And we said unto my Lord*," &c.—(Genesis, chap. xliv. 19 and 20.) The inhabitants of Caucasus are mentioned by Klaproth as also using the pronoun *they* for *thou*. To be addressed by the latter pronoun is considered by them, he says, as rude or hostile.

definite *es* cannot begin the proposition, if the ascertained object be denoted by a personal pronoun; as, *Er ist es* (not *es ist er*), *it is he*.

2. With impersonal verbs; where its import is so very vague and obscure, that it seems almost to denote the external world in general; as, *Es regnet, it rains*; *es war Abend, it was evening*; *es wurde finster, it became dark*; *Gott sprach, es werde Licht, God said, let there be light*; *es war einmal ein König, there was once a king*.

It will be seen from the last two examples, that *es* is sometimes rendered in English by *there*. When referring to the predicate of a proposition, *es* is rendered by *so*; as, *Gestern war sie reich, heute ist sie es nicht mehr, yesterday she was rich, today she is no longer so*.

Es is often contracted with the word preceding it; as, *Er gab mir's* (for *mir es*), *he gave it to me*; *ich bin's* (*bin es*), *it is I*.

Obs. 4. The place of the third personal pronoun is very frequently supplied by the demonstratives *der* and *derselbe*; and, when governed by a preposition, very often by *da* compounded with the preposition (see § 64, *Obs.* 3 and 4). The accusative neuter *es*, in particular, never occurs after a preposition, *dasselbe* or *da* being always used instead; as, *Ich kann ohne dasselbe* (not *ohne es*) *leben, I can live without it*; *für dasselbe*, or *dafür* (not *für es*), *for it*.

§ 60. REFLECTIVE PRONOUNS.

If the oblique cases of the personal pronouns refer to the same individual as the nominative of the proposition to which they belong, they are called *reflective* pronouns, and are expressed in English by *myself*, *thyself*, *himself*, &c. With the exception of *sich*, *himself*, *herself*, &c., which is exclusively reflective, there are no appropriate reflective pronouns in German; and the oblique cases of the personal pronouns (§ 59) are used indiscriminately, whether the person they designate be one and the same individual with the nominative, or not. Thus we say, *Ich fleide mich an, I dress myself*; *Ich schmeichle mir, I flatter myself*; *Du fleidest dich an, thou dressest thyself*; *Du schmeichelst dir, thou flatterest thyself*,—in the same manner as we should say, *Er fleidet mich an, he dresses me*; *Er schmeichelt mir, he flatters me*. If the genitive is used reflectively, the word *selbst* is often added, especially in the third person; as, *Erbarme*

dich deiner selbst, *have pity on thyself*; Er schonet seiner selbst nicht, *he does not spare his own self*; but this addition of selbst is merely emphatic, not reflective (see Obs. 3).

The dative and accusative of the third person, however, have an appropriate reflective pronoun,—namely, sich; which serves for both these cases, in all genders and numbers of that person, and may accordingly be rendered in English thus:—

Dative, sich, (*to or for*) *himself, herself, itself, oneself, themselves*,—also *yourself, and yourselves* (see § 59, Obs. 2).

Accusative, sich, *himself, herself, itself, oneself, themselves (yourself, and yourselves)*.

Ex. Er (or sie) kleidet sich an, *he (or she) dresses himself (or herself)*; Sie schmeicheln sich, *they flatter themselves*; Wie befinden Sie sich? *how do you find yourself?*

Obs. 1. If the dative, or accusative, of the third person be under the government of a preposition, it must, if referring to the nominative of the sentence, still be considered as reflective, and rendered by sich, though in English the simple pronoun is used in that case; as, Er hatte kein Geld bei sich (not ihm), *he had no money with him*; Sie warf das Buch von sich, *she threw the book away from her*.

Obs. 2. The oblique cases uns, euch, and sich, are used also in a reciprocal sense, denoting *each other, or one another*; as, Wir verstehen uns, *we understand one another*; Ihr kennt euch, *you know each other*; Sie saßen sich an, *they (or you) looked at each other*.—See also the reflective verbs.

Obs. 3. In compounds, selbst has the import of a reflective pronoun, like the corresponding English *self*; as, Selbstliebe, *self-love*; Selbstmord, *suicide*; Selbsttäuschung, *self-delusion*. It, however, never occurs separately as a pronoun; but it is often added to a noun, or pronoun, merely for the sake of emphasis. Hence, if the English *myself, thyself, &c.* stand in the same capacity—i. e. are used merely for emphasis' sake, without representing a noun—they are always rendered only by selbst or selber; as, *I myself saw it*, ich selbst (or selber) sah es; *He is goodness itself*, er ist die Güte selbst; *Say yourself*, saget (or sagen Sie) selbst. But if they are pronouns, supplying the place of a noun, they must be rendered in German by the corresponding pronoun, either with the addition of selbst, or not, according as they are emphatic (i. e. equivalent to *my own self, thy own self, &c.*) or not; as, *He deceives himself*, er täuscht sich;—*He deceives nobody but himself*, er täuscht niemand,

als sich selbst; *I am a burden to myself*, ich bin mir selbst zur Last. If *myself*, *thyself*, &c. are not used reflectively, they are generally without emphasis, and rendered merely by the corresponding pronoun; as, *He, you, and myself*, er, Sie, und ich; *He saw only your sister and yourself*, er sah nur Ihre Schwester und Sie.

The expressions *by myself*, *by ourselves*, &c. are rendered by *allein*, *alone*; as, *I was by myself*, ich war allein; *Is he by himself?* ist er allein?

It may be useful to observe also, that *selbst* is likewise used as a conjunction for *so far, even*; which import it invariably has if at the beginning of a clause; as, *Selbst* (or *so far*) ich sah es, *even I saw it*.

§ 61. INDEFINITE PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

The indefinite personal pronouns are,—*man*, *one*, *they*, or *people*; *jemand*, *somebody*, *anybody*; *niemand*, *nobody*, *not any body*; and *jederman*, *everybody*. They denote persons, without regard to sex, and are employed only in the singular. *Man* is indeclinable, being used only in the nominative; as, *Man kann hier sein eigenes Wort nicht hören*, *one cannot hear one's own voice here*; *Man sagt, daß, &c.*, *they (people) say that, &c.* The other three pronouns take in the genitive *s*, and remain uninflected in the dative and accusative; in which latter cases, however, *jemand* and *niemand* may take *en*; as, *Es klopfte jemand*, *somebody is knocking*; *Sahen sie jemand* (or *jemanden*)? *did you see anybody?* *Er ist niemand's* (or *jedermann's*) *Freund*, *he is nobody's (everybody's) friend*; *Sage es niemand* (or *niemanden*), *tell it to nobody*; *Er kennt jederman*, *he knows everybody* *.

Obs. The genitive of *man*, *one's*, is rendered by the possessive *sein* (see the first of the above examples); the dative and accusative, if reflective, are rendered by *sich* (see § 60); otherwise, by the corresponding cases of *einer*; which word is also in the nominative often used for *man*; as, *Man glaubt sich gewöhnlich stärker, als man ist*, *one usually*

* Strictly speaking, the above words are nouns rather than pronouns: *Man*, the identical *man* in English, originally denoted, like the modern word *Mensch*, a human being, without distinction of sex; which import, though more indefinitely, is yet retained in the so-called pronoun. A similar instance is the corresponding French pronoun *on*, Old French *hom*,—a corruption of the Latin *homo* (*man*). The other three words are compounded with *man*,—the final *d* in *jemand* and *niemand* being a later addition.

thinks one's self stronger than one is; Wenn er einen ansieht, so glaubt man, daß, &c., *if he looks at one, one thinks that, &c.*; Es könnte einer glauben, daß, &c., *one might think that, &c.* Einer is also often used instead of jemand; and its negative keiner, for niemand; as, Wenn einer (or jemand) kommt, &c., *if anybody comes, &c.*; Sage es keinem (or niemand), *tell it to nobody.*

§ 62. DEFINITIVE PRONOUNS.

The definitive pronouns (see § 58), with the exception of the relatives *der* and *wer*, are often called adjective pronouns, since they may like adjectives be followed by their substantives. If they do not refer to any noun in the sentence, either preceding or following, they are employed substantively; and what has been said with regard to adjectives thus used (§ 52), applies also to them,—viz. in the masculine gender they denote a man, or merely a person without distinction of sex; in the feminine, a female person; in the neuter, a thing; and in the plural, persons of either sex, or without any reference to sex.

Those which take the defective declension, and the demonstrative *der*, are in some of their cases differently inflected when not followed by their substantives (see §§ 29 and 64); all the others have the same inflections whether followed by their substantives or not. It must however be observed, that with all definitive pronouns not followed by a substantive, the language seems averse to the use of the genitive form in *es* or *er*—particularly to that in *es*—the form in *en* being generally preferred. Accordingly, instead of the genitives *meines* (or *meiner*), *welches* (or *welcher*), *dieses*, *jenes*, *solches*, *jedes*, &c., if not followed by a noun, we generally use *des* (or *der*) *meinigen* (or *des* or *der* *meinen*), *dessen* (or *deren*), *desjenigen*, *eines solchen*, *eines jeden*, &c., as will be seen from the following sections.

Obs. The English *one*, after definitives and adjectives used separately from their nouns, is not translated in German; as, *this one*, *dieser* (or *diese* or *dieses*, according to the gender of the substantive understood); *the red one*, *der* (die or *daß*) *rothe*; *the young ones*, *die jungen*, &c.

§ 63. POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS.

The possessive pronouns are, *mein, my* ; *dein, thy* ; *sein, his, its, or one's* ; *ihr, her* ; *unser, our* ; *euer, your* ; *ihre, their*. They are, as already mentioned (§ 59, *Obs.* 1.), merely the old genitives of the personal pronouns, and accordingly supply the place of a noun in the genitive case. Thus in the expressions *my house, John and his brother, my* is the substitute of the genitive of the speaker's name; *his*, that of John's. But, unlike other genitives, they coalesce like definitives with the following substantive, agreeing with it in gender, case, and number, and are for that purpose provided with appropriate inflections (see § 29.). With respect to the possessor therefore, whose place they supply, they are personal pronouns; but with regard to the object possessed or the noun following them, which they define, they are definitive pronouns. The learner will therefore perceive, that the possessive pronouns distinguish the gender of merely the object possessed by inflections, and that the distinction of genders denoted by the words *sein* and *ihr* refer, like that of the English *his* and *her*, to the gender of the possessor, and not to that of the following noun; as, *sein Sohn, his son* ; *seines Sohnes, of his son* : *seine Tochter, his daughter* ; *seiner Tochter, of his daughter* ; — *ihr Sohn, her son* ; *ihrer Sohnes, of her son* : *ihre Tochter, her daughter*, &c.

Obs. When not followed by their substantives, the possessives, instead of taking the complete declension (according to § 29), are often preceded by *der, die, das* (similar to the French *le mien, le tien, &c.*), and declined like adjectives preceded by that article. The inflection is then annexed either immediately to the pronoun,—as *der, (die, das,) meine, deine, seine, unsere, &c., mine, thine, his, ours, &c.* Gen. *des* (or *der*) *meinen, &c.*—or with *ig* before it; i. e. the syllable *ig* is inserted between the pronoun and the inflection; as, *der (die, or das) meinige, deinige, seinige, unsrige, &c.* ; Gen. *des* (or *der*) *meinigen, deinigen, &c.* ; Dat. *dem* (or *der*) *meinigen, deinigen, &c.* :—Plur. *die meinigen, der meinigen, &c.* Thus we may say indifferently, *Das ist nicht mein Buch, sondern seines, or das seine, or das seinige, this is not my book, but his* ; *Ihr Bruder und unserer, or der unsere, or der unserige, your*

brother and ours. However, in the genitive, the form in *en* alone is used; as *der Sohn meines Nachbarn und die Tochter des Ihrigen* (not *Ihres*:—see § 62), *the son of my neighbour and the daughter of yours.*—Nor can these pronouns be used substantively (§ 62) without the definite article: as, *Es sind die Meinigen* (or *die Meinen*), *they are my people*, or also *my family*—*Es sind meine* could be said only in reference to a substantive just mentioned, and would mean, *they are mine*; *Wie befinden sich die Ihrigen?* *how does your family do?* We may further observe, that the neuter singular, employed substantively, denotes either the property or the duty of a person; as, *Er hat das Seinige dabei verloren*, *he has lost his property by it*; *Ich habe das Meinige gethan*, *thun Sie nun das Ihrige*, *I have done my duty, now do yours.*

Instead of the possessives, the genitive of the demonstratives *der* and *derselbe* is often employed.—See § 64, *Obs.* 3.

§ 64. DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

These are, *dieser*, *this*; *jener*, *that*; *der*, *this*, also *that*; *derjenige* (or *der nämliche*), *that* or *he* (followed by *who* or *which*); *derselbe*, *the same*; and *solcher*, *such*:—

1. *Dieser* and *jener* have the complete declension (§ 29). *Dieser* refers to the nearer, or to the latter object, or merely to an object just mentioned, and is rendered in English by *this*, or by *the latter*;—*jener* refers to the more remote, or to the former object, and is rendered by *that*, *the former*, or also by *the other*; as, *Jener Baum ist größer als dieser*, *that tree is larger than this*; *Folge der Tugend, denn diese nur macht dich glücklich*, *follow virtue, for this alone will make you happy*; in *dieser*, und in *jener Welt*, *in this, and in the other world*; *Gut, sprach dieser*, *well, said the latter*; *Was, rief jener*, *what, cried the other*.

2. *Der*, *die*, *das*, merely singles out an object by pointing at it, as it were, without implying either nearness or remoteness. It is used with reference to objects present, or just mentioned, or, like *derjenige*, with reference to a subsequent relative; and may be rendered in English, as the sense requires, either by *this*, or by *that*, or, if employed substantively, also by *he*, *she*, or *they*.

It has two forms of declension ;—namely,

a.) If followed by its substantive, it is declined like the definite article (§ 30); with which indeed it is, strictly speaking, one and the same word, having merely more emphasis than the latter (§ 56, *Obs.* 2); as, *der Mann, this (or that) man*—*der Mann, the man*; *die Frau da, that woman there*—*die Frau, the woman*; *das Buch, that book*—*das Buch, the book*; *Gib es den Leuten, welche es brauchen, give it to those people who want it*—*Gib es den Armen, give it to the poor*.

b.) If not followed by a substantive, it differs from the article; but only in the genitive of all genders and numbers, and in the dative plural,—these cases adding *en* to the same cases of the article, and moreover doubling the *s* of *des*, as will be seen from the following table :—

Singular.			Plural
masc.	fem.	neut.	for all genders.
N. <i>der</i>	<i>die</i>	<i>das</i>	<i>die</i>
G. <i>dessen</i> or <i>desß</i>	<i>deren</i>	<i>dessen</i> or <i>desß</i>	<i>deren</i> or <i>derer</i> *
D. <i>dem</i>	<i>der</i>	<i>dem</i>	<i>denen</i>
A. <i>den</i>	<i>die</i>	<i>das</i>	<i>die</i> .

Ex. *Wessen Haus ist das? Dessen (deren) da, whose house is that? this man's (this woman's)*; *Diese Kinder sind Waisen, erbarmen Sie sich deren, these children are orphans, have pity on them*; *Gib es denen, die es brauchen, give it to those who want it*; *Dort ist Ihr Bruder, fragen Sie den; der weiß es, there is your brother, ask him; he knows it*; *Nehmen Sie die Feder, die ist besser, take this pen, this (which) is better*.

3. *Derjenige* (*welcher*), *he* (*who* or *that*), is a compound of the definite article and *jenig*, a derivative of *jener*; but, as will be seen from the following table, each component part

* *Derer* is used only if referring to a subsequent relative clause; as *die Kinder derer, die für's Vaterland fochten, the children of those who fought for their country*;—in all other cases *deren* is more common; as *die Nachbarn und deren Kinder, the neighbours and their children*; *deren giebt es viele, of these there are many*.

is separately declined,—viz. *jenig* like an adjective, and *der* retaining its usual declension:—

	Singular.			Plural
masc.	fem.	neut.		for all genders.
N. <i>derjenige</i>	<i>diejenige</i>	<i>dasjenige</i>		<i>diejenigen</i>
G. <i>desjenigen</i>	<i>derjenigen</i>	<i>desjenigen</i>		<i>derjenigen</i>
D. <i>demjenigen</i>	<i>derjenigen</i>	<i>demjenigen</i>		<i>denjenigen</i>
A. <i>denjenigen</i>	<i>diejenige</i>	<i>dasjenige</i>		<i>diejenigen</i> .

This demonstrative invariably refers to a subsequent relative, of which it may be considered as a correlate pronoun; as, *Traue demjenigen nicht, der dir schmeichelt, do not trust him who flatters you*; *Ich gab es derjenigen Frau, welcher es gehörte, I gave it to that woman to whom it belonged*; *Diejenigen, welche dort waren, &c., those who were there, &c.*

4. *Derselbe, dieselbe, dasselbe*, which exactly answers in import to the English, *the same*, is compounded and declined like the preceding *derjenige*,—namely, masculine *derselbe, desselben, demselben, denselben*; feminine *dieselbe, derselben, &c.*; as, *Es ist derselbe Mann und dasselbe Pferd, it is the same man and the same horse*; *eben dieselben Leute, the very same people*; *in einer und eben derselben Straße, in one and the same street*.

It is often used also for the third personal pronoun *er, sie, es*, and consequently its genitive also for the possessive pronouns *sein* and *ihr* (see § 63); as, *Er gab ihm Geld, und bat ihn dasselbe wohl anzuwenden, he gave him money, and desired him to employ it (the same) well*; *Sie kam mit ihrer Schwester und dem Nachbar derselben, she came with her sister and her (sister's) neighbour*—see *Obs. 3*.

Der, die, das, nämlich, has the same signification and declension as *derselbe*; but the article is written separately; as, *der nämlich, the same*; *des nämlich, of the same, &c.*—*Selbiger, selbige, selbiges*, *the same*, which is declined like *dieser*, occurs likewise for *derselbe*; but it is growing obsolete.

5. *Solcher, solche, solches* answers to the English *such*, and is declined like *dieser*; unless preceded by *ein, a*, or *sein, no*, when it is declined like an adjective preceded by these definitives; as, masc. *ein solcher, eines solchen, einem solchen*,

einen solchen; fem. eine solche, einer solchen, &c.; kein solcher, keines solchen, &c.—Sometimes it is followed by the indefinite article, but then it remains uninflected; as, *solch' ein Mann, such a man; solch' eine Frau, such a woman, &c.*

Obs. 1. When implying a contradistinction, *dieser* and *jener* answer exactly to the English *this* and *that*; but otherwise, *dieser* has a more, and *jener* a less, extensive use than their corresponding words in English. For *dieser* may be applied to all present objects which are near at hand, though out of our immediate reach (thus one would say in German, *diese Uhr*, or *dieser Stuhl*, in pointing to a watch or a chair at some yards distance); whilst *jener*, generally, applies only to such as are at some considerable distance. *Dieser* may be applied even to objects far remote in space or time: but only if they are familiar to the hearer; otherwise, *jener* must be used; as, *Sie sind zu Rom gewesen; ich möchte diese berühmte Stadt auch einmal sehen, you have been at Rome; I should like also once to see this (that) celebrated city; Cicero, dieser große Redner, Cicero, this (that) great orator;—In jenen Zeiten des Aberglaubens, in those times of superstition; Wie hieß doch jener Philosoph, welcher sagte, &c.? what was the name of that philosopher who said, &c.?—Past time previously defined, is likewise often referred to by *dieser*; as, *Als er ihr Unglück vernahm, was hätte er in diesem Augenblick nicht für sie gethan, when he learned her misfortune, what would he not have done at this (that) moment for her?***

Der is sometimes used for *jener*, but more generally for *dieser*; particularly in colloquial language; as, *die (or jene) Frau dort, that woman (there); der (or dieser) Tisch, this table; Ich traue dem (or diesem) Menschen nicht, I do not trust this man; Er ging den Augenblick weg, he went away this moment.* In reference to such nouns, however, as include either the present moment of time, or the spot on which the person speaking is, *dieser* alone must be used; as, *Er reißt diese (not die) Woche ab, he departs this week; Es geschah in diesem Hause, it happened in this house (in which we now are,—in dem Hause would refer to a house at which we point).—The expression *der und der, die und die, &c.* answers to the English *such and such*; as, *Sprachen Sie nicht mit dem und dem? did you not speak with such and such a person?**

* *Hier, here*, the corresponding adverb of *dieser*, is often used in a similar manner; for example, *Als er in den Saal trat, war er über die Pracht erstaunt, die er hier sah, when he entered the saloon, he was astonished at the splendour which he saw here (there).*—It would therefore appear to be a general practice in German, that when the mind is wholly engaged with an object, that object is considered as immediately present; the actually present point of space, or time, being lost sight of.

It will be seen from some of the examples in this section, that the adverbs *hier*, *dort*, and *da*, are, for emphasis' sake, often added to the demonstratives *dieser*, *jener*, and *der*, with which they correspond to a certain degree. *Da* is sometimes rendered by *here*, and often by *there*,—just as its corresponding demonstrative *der* answers to the English *this* and *that*; as, *Da bin ich*, *here am I*; *Wer ist da?* *who is there?* *hier und da*, *here and there*.

Obs. 2. The neuter demonstratives *dieses* and *das* are often used for all genders and numbers, in reference to objects predicated by a noun or pronoun; in which case *dieses* is generally contracted into *dies* or *dieß*; as, *Dieses* (or *dies*) *ist mein Bruder*, *this is my brother*; *Dies* (or *dieß*) *sind meine Schwestern*, *these (literally this) are my sisters*; *Sind Sie das?* *is (literally are) that you?* *Das sind die Folgen seiner Erziehung*, *these (that) are the results of his education*; *Das ist ein Feiger*, *that is a coward*. It will be seen from these examples, that the verb in such cases does not agree with the demonstrative, but with the substantive, or personal pronoun. A similar usage we have observed with the indefinite *es* (§ 59, *Obs. 3*); to which pronoun, indeed, these demonstratives are quite analogous; for they too relate to an object unascertained,—at least with regard to its essence, or name. Thus if we say, “that is my brother,” *that* denotes merely an object of perception, a being in general, of whose characteristic we are ignorant, and which is therefore denoted by the words “is my brother.” Hence they occur so only with verbs used in assigning to an object its character, or name,—viz. with the verb *seyn*, *to be* (as in the above examples); *werden*, *to become*; *heissen*, *to call*, or *to be called*; and *nennen*, *to name*; as, *Das wird einst ein geschickter Mann werden*, *that will become one day a clever man*; *Dies heisst ein Birkel*, *this is called a circle*; *Das nennt man einen Jagdhund*, *that they call a hound*.

Obs. 3. The demonstratives *dieser* and *der* are often employed in the manner of personal pronouns, as substitutes for the names of objects present, or just mentioned; and are therefore, if relating to persons, rendered in English by *he*, *she*, or *they*,—the corresponding English *this* and *that* being seldom applied in this manner to persons*.—See page 130.

* Thus we may say in English in reference to things, “this, or these, I like;” “that, or those, I had seen before;” but seldom in reference to persons. Though, formerly, they must have been very generally so used also in reference to persons; as may be seen from the circumstance that the Anglo-Saxon *tha*, dative *tham* (the plural of the demonstrative *se*, *seo*, *that*, *that*), has become in English *they*, *them*; in other words, the English personal pronoun *they*, *them*, was originally a demonstrative signifying *those*;—in which original acceptance the common people still say, “them trees,” “them books,” &c.

This observation serves, at the same time, to show, that the classification of those grammarians is not unexceptionable, who consider the adjective pronouns (and consequently also the demonstratives) as mere definitives, thereby excluding them entirely from the pronouns.

They are, in such cases, distinguished from the personal pronouns merely by emphasis; having, from their demonstrative nature, the verbal accent; which the personal seldom have in German; as, *Was will der or die* [dieser or diese]? *what does he' or she' (that man or woman) want?* *Was will er or sie?* *what does he or she (the man or woman) want?*

However, the genitive of *der, die, das**, is often used without any emphasis, merely for *seiner and ihrer*, the genitive of the personal pronouns, and, consequently, also for the possessive pronouns *sein and ihr* (see § 63); as, *Es gibt deren (or ihrer) viele*, *there are many of them*; *Sie lud ihren Nachbar und dessen (or seine) Familie ein*, *she invited her neighbour and his family*; *Ihre Kinder und deren Lehrer*, *your children and their teacher*. In general, however, the genitives *dessen and deren*, as well as the demonstrative *derselbe* (see page 131), are used as personal, or possessive, pronouns, merely in reference to a noun or pronoun in the oblique case, or to that last mentioned; and, accordingly, serve often to prevent ambiguity, in cases where the antecedent referred to by the pronoun could not be ascertained by other circumstances; as, *Er sprach mit seinem Bruder über dessen Angelegenheiten*, *he spoke with his brother on his (the brother's) affairs* (*seine Angelegenheiten* might mean his own affairs); *unser Nachbar, sein Bruder, und der Sohn desselben (or dessen Sohn)*, *waren gegenwärtig*, *our neighbour, his brother, and the son of the latter, were present*; *Er sagte meinem Bruder, daß der Buchhändler demselben die Bücher schicken würde*, *he told my brother that the bookseller would send him (my brother) the books*.

The plural *dieselben*, and the genitive plural *deren*, which, according to the preceding remark, may be used for *sie, they*, and *ihr, their*, are, consistently with what has been said § 59, *Obs. 2*, also used in addressing persons for *you and your*; in which, case, however, the old genitive form *dero* is used instead of the modern form *deren*. But this mode of address is employed only in ceremonious and official language, towards persons high in office or rank. In such cases these words are often compounded with *hoch, höchst*, and *Allerhöchst*, according to the dignity of the person addressed; as, *Höchstieselben haben geruhet zu befehlen*, &c., *you (your Royal Highness) have been pleased to order, &c.*; *Allerhöchstdero Befehl*, *your (your Majesty's) command*.

Obs. 4. If the dative or accusative of the demonstrative *der, die, das*, or of the third personal pronouns *er, sie, es*, be under the government of a preposition, its place is often supplied, in all genders and numbers, by the particle *da, there*; which is then prefixed to the preposition;

* The genitive of *dieser and jener* is seldom used without a substantive (see § 62); except in the expression *der Ueberbringer dieses*, *the bearer of this (writing)*; and in dates; as, *den 20 dieses*, *the 20th of this (month)*, which are terms in ordinary use.

making compounds of the same nature and form as the English *thereby*, *therewith*, &c. ; as, *dadu*, (*thereto*) *to that, to it, or to them* ; *damit*, (*therewith*) *with that, with it, or with them* ; *dafür*, *for that, for it, &c.* If the preposition begins with a vowel—as *an*, *auf*, *aus*, &c.—*r* is inserted between the two component parts ; as, *daran*, *darauf*, *daraus*, &c. In the compound with *nach*, *after*, this *r* occurs also sometimes ; as *darnach* for *danach*. The compound *darin* changes in into *ein*, when implying a motion or direction to an object ; as, *Es liegt darin*, *it lies in that* ;—*Leg es darein*, *lay it into that*. All prepositions governing the dative or the accusative (see the prepositions) may be compounded in this manner, except *ausser*, *out of* ; *nebst*, *besides* ; *sammt*, *together with* ; *seit*, *since* ; and *ohne*, *without*. These compounds are used in reference to any object (except persons) that does not particularly engage our attention ; as, *Hier ist besserer Wein, trinken Sie davon* (for *von dem*), *here is better wine, drink of that* ; *Dieser Hut mit einer Feder darauf*, *this hat with a feather in it* ; *Das sind schöne Pferde, was verlangen Sie dafür* (for *für sie*) ? *these are fine horses, what do you ask for them* ? They very frequently relate merely to a proposition ; as, *Ich habe nichts dagegen*, *I have no objection to it* (namely, to what has just been proposed) ; *Er borgte Geld ohne mir etwas davon zu sagen*, *he borrowed money without telling me anything of it*. But they are never used with reference to persons, or to such things as engross our attention ; as, *Ich kenne den Mann, ich habe oft mit ihm* (not *damit*) *gesprochen*, *I know the man, I have often spoken with him* ; *Ein wichtiger Augenblick, von ihm* (not *davon*) *hängt mein Schicksal ab*, *an important moment, my fate depends on it*.—The adverb occurs sometimes separate from the preposition, other words being placed between ; as, *Da sey Gott für* (for *dafür*, &c.), *God forbid* ; *Da läßt sich Ehre mit einlegen* (for *damit*), *by that, honour may be acquired*. But this separation is not approved of by grammarians.

Hier, *here*, is likewise compounded with prepositions, and used for *dieser* in the same manner as *da* is for *der* ; as, *hiermit*, *herewith*, *with this* ; *hierin*, *in this*, &c. These compounds are, however, of a more limited use than the preceding, and employed chiefly in reference to a proposition ; as, *Hieraus kann man sehen, daß er*, &c., *out of this* (namely, of what has been said) *it may be seen that he*, &c. ; *Hierauf ging er weg*, *hereupon he went away*. Before prepositions beginning with a consonant, *hier* may drop its *r* ; as, *hiemit*, *hiezu*, &c.—In conclusion we may observe, that all these compounds have, as in English, the accent on the second component part—*damit*, *therewith* ; *hierauf*, *hereupon*, &c.—unless the first has an antithetical emphasis.—See § 18, and § 19, remark 3.

Obs. 5. In the use of the indefinite article with the demonstrative *solcher*, *such*, the idiom of the two languages is the same—that is, the demonstrative is in German attended by the article, only when it is

done in English ; though, in English, it always follows the demonstrative, whilst in German it more generally precedes it ; as, ein solcher Mann, *such a man* ; eine solche Nacht, *such a night* ; solche Tugend, *such virtue* ; solches Wasser, *such water* ; solche Leute, *such people*. The article may, however, also follow the demonstrative. See page 132. In this latter case the particle *so* is sometimes used for *solcher* ; as, *so* einer, *such a one* ; *so* eine Frau, *such a woman*.

Instead of *solcher*, if unpreceded by an article, the compound *dergleichen*, *then, the like*, is often employed, for all genders and numbers ; as, *dergleichen* Wein, *such wine* ; *dergleichen* Leute, *such people*. However, if not followed by a substantive, *dergleichen* is confined to the feminine gender and the plural number ; in reference to masculine and neuter nouns, *desgleichen* must be used, according to the usual distinction of the genitive forms *des* and *der* ; as, *Das ist guter Wein, desgleichen findet man selten*, *that is good wine, the like is seldom met with* ; — *Das sind gute Weine, dergleichen &c.*, *these are good wines, the like &c.*†

In formal and ceremonious language, *solcher* is sometimes used for the third personal pronoun ; as, *Der König kam gestern an ; und solcher* (for *er*) *gedenkt, &c.*, *the king arrived yesterday ; and he intends, &c.* ; *Ich habe solches bereits vernommen*, *I have already heard it*.

Finally we may observe, that the English *as* following *such*, must be rendered in German by *wie* or *als*, if implying a *similitude* to an object ; and by *welcher*, if it implies *the belonging to a class*, described by the following relative clause ; as, *Such a hero as he*, ein solcher Held wie er ; *Such animals as live in the water*, solche Thiere, welche im Wasser leben. If *such* relates to the intenseness of its noun, *as* is rendered by *daß* ; as, *He was in such a passion as to be unable to speak*, er war in einem solchen Zorne, daß er nicht sprechen konnte.

§ 65. RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

These are, *der, die, daß, that, who, or which* ; *welcher, welche, welches, who, or which* ; and *wer, who*, with its neuter *was, what*. — *Welcher, wer, and was*, are used also interrogatively ; which forms, however, no etymological distinction. — See *Obs. 2*.

1. *Der, die, daß*, has the declension of the demonstrative *der*, given page 130. However, the second genitive forms, *des* and *derer*, are never used relatively. (See also note *, page 130).

† The same distinction must be made if these compounds are used relatively ; as, *Wein desgleichen* (or *Weine dergleichen*) *man selten findet*, *wine (or wines) the like of which is seldom met with*.

2. *Welcher* has the complete declension (§ 29). This, as well as the preceding relative *der*, may refer both to persons and things.

Obs. 1. In exclamations, *welcher* signifies *what*; and, if followed by the indefinite article, it drops the inflection; as, *welch' ein Mann!* *what a man!* *welch' eine Frau!* *what a woman!*—Poets omit sometimes the inflection even if not followed by the article; as, *Welch' (for welches) Glück habe ich verscherzt!* *what happiness I have trifled away!*

3. *Wer* can be used only with reference to persons (see the second rule below). It has no inflections to distinguish the feminine gender, or the plural number. Its neuter gender *was* answers exactly to the English *what* (see however *Obs. 4. rem. 2*); but it is never used in the dative, and very seldom in the genitive. The declension of this pronoun is as follows:—

For both sexes and numbers.		Neuter.	
N. <i>wer</i> ,	<i>who.</i>	<i>was</i> ,	<i>what.</i>
G. <i>wessen (or wess)</i> ,	<i>whose.</i>	<i>wessen (or wess)</i> ,	<i>of what.</i>
D. <i>wem</i> ,	<i>to whom.</i>	_____	_____
A. <i>wen</i> ,	<i>whom.</i>	<i>was</i> ,	<i>what.</i>

With regard to the use of these three pronouns, the following rules may be observed:—

I. If referring to an antecedent *expressed*, all the English relatives, *who*, *which*, or *that*, may be rendered indifferently by *welcher* or *der*, but never by *wer*; as, *The man who was here*, *der Mann, welcher—or der—hier war*; *The woman whom I saw*, *die Frau, die—or welche—ich sah*; *The children to whom he gave it*, *die Kinder, denen—or welchen—er es gab*; *The book that you bought*, *das Buch, welches—or das—Sie kauften*; &c.

However, the *genitive* of *welcher* is very seldom used in such cases, but mostly that of *der* alone (see § 62); as, *Der Mann, dessen (not welches) Muth, und die Frau, deren (not welcher) Tugend wir so sehr bewundern*, &c., *the man whose courage, and the woman whose virtue, we admire so much*, &c.; *Die Verbrechen, deren er angeklagt wurde*, &c., *the crimes of which he was accused*, &c.

Obs. 2. If the nominative of the relative is followed by a personal pronoun with which it stands in apposition, (which is often done in German in order to make the verb agree with the personal pronoun—as will be explained in the syntax,) *der*, and not *welcher*, is used; as, *Ich, der ich nie Geld borge, I, who never borrow money; Ihr, die Ihr mich kenne, you, who know me.* On the other hand, if the relative refers to a mere proposition, and not to any noun, *welcher* seems preferable to *der*; as *Wenn er mir das Geld auch geben wollte, welches er gewiß nicht thun wird, &c. even if he would give me the money, which he certainly will not, &c.*

II. But if *who* and *which* cannot be referred to an antecedent expressed, or if *which* is followed by a substantive, *which* must be rendered by *welcher* exclusively, and *who* by *wer*; as, *Which of these books? welches dieser Bücher? I do not know which of these boys (or which boy) did it, ich weiß nicht welcher dieser Knaben (or welcher Knabe) es that; Who is he? wer ist er? Whose house is that? wessen Haus ist das? I know whom he marries, ich weiß wen er heirathet; Who are they? wer sind sie? Who steals my purse, steals trash, wer mein Geld stiehlt, stiehlt Tand.*

Obs. 3. From the last example it will be perceived, that *wer*, like *who* in English, may be used in an indefinite sense for *derjenige welcher*, *he* (i. e. any person) *who*. The relative *der* is sometimes used in this manner in reference to particular or defined objects; as *Die (for diejenigen die) aber gegessen hatten, deren waren bei fünf tausend Mann, but they that had eaten were about five thousand men; Die (for diejenige welche) ihr sucht, ist die Braut des Himmels, she whom you seek is the bride of heaven.* In expressing a wish, not only the demonstrative, but also the whole clause belonging to it, is sometimes omitted, if it can be easily supplied in the mind; particularly in wishing anything improbable or impossible; as *Ja, wer das könnte, yes, he who could do that (supply, he would be clever); Eilende Wolken! Segler der Lüfte! Wer mit euch wanderte, mit euch schiffte (Schiller), Hurrying clouds! sailors of the air! (happy he) who could roam, who could sail with you!*

The omission of the relative pronoun however, which is so frequent in English, never takes place in German; thus *the book I bought*, must be rendered, *das Buch, welches (which) ich kaufte.*

Obs. 4. As already observed, *was*, generally, corresponds to the English *what*; as, *Was sagte er Ihnen? what did he tell you? Was er Ihnen sagte ist wahr, what he told you is true.* We must however remark!

1.) If the English *what* refers to a following substantive, it either relates to the individuality of it (i. e. we wish merely to ascertain by it an individual object out of many), or to its characteristic. In the former case, where it is nearly equivalent to *which*, it is rendered by *welcher*; as, *In what street does he live?* in *welcher* Straße wohnt er? *On what day?* an *welchem* Tage?—In the latter case it is rendered by *was* für ein; as, *What tree is this?* *was* für ein Baum ist das; *You see what a friend he is*, Sie sehen *was* für ein Freund er ist; *I have a good horse, what sort of a one have you?* ich habe ein gutes Pferd, *was* für eines haben Sie? Thus also in exclamations; as, *O, what a man your father is!* o *was* für ein Mann ist Ihr Vater! In the last example but one, ein has the complete declension, the substantive being understood (see § 29). Before substantives not susceptible of the indefinite article—for instance, if denoting matter, or if in the plural number—ein is omitted; as, *Was für Tuch, und was für Knöpfe, wollen Sie haben?* *what cloth, and what buttons, will you have?* If such substantives as do not admit of ein have been mentioned before, *welcher* is sometimes substituted for them; but it is better to repeat the substantive; as, *Das sind silberne Knöpfe, was für welche (better was für Knöpfe) wollen Sie haben?* *these are silver buttons, what buttons will you have?*—*Was* and *für* are often separated by the intervention of the nominative, and sometimes also of the verb: the above examples, for instance, might also run thus, *Was wollen sie für Knöpfe haben?* *O was ist Ihr Vater für ein Mann!*

2.) *Was* should, like its masculine *wer*, and like the English *what*, never refer to an antecedent expressed; yet it is generally used also in reference to the neuter gender of pronouns, if they do not represent any substantive mentioned, but have a collective, or indefinite sense, or refer to a proposition; as *Wir lernten vieles, was wir vorher nicht wußten*, *we learned much that we did not know before*; *Alles, was ich sehe und höre, &c.*, *all that I see and hear, &c.*; *Das, was er mir sagte ist wahr*, *that which he told me is true*.—The antecedent *das*, in the last example, may be omitted (see the first example of this observation). It can, however, never be omitted if governed by a preposition, which is so generally done in English; as, *Ich urtheilte aus dem, was (not aus was) er mir sagte, daß, &c.*, *I judged from what he told me, that, &c.*

3.) The genitive and dative of *was*—viz. *wessen* or *wes*, and *wem*—were formerly in frequent use: the former still occurs in the Bible; for instance, St. Matthew, chap. 12. ver. 34. *Wessen das Herz voll ist, deß gehet der Mund über*, literally, *of what the heart is full, of that the mouth overflows*; but *wem* is now used only in reference to persons, so that *was*, in modern German, is without a dative. However, *was* occurs sometimes uninflected after prepositions that govern that case; as, *mit was?* *with what?* *von was?* *of what?*—though the use of the com-

pounds *womit*, *wherewith*; *wovon*, *wherefrom*, &c. (see the following observation), is more general in such instances, and more correct.

4.) In familiar language, *was* is used sometimes in the sense of *why*; as, *Was lachst du?* *why dost thou laugh?* *Was schreiet er?* *what does he cry for?*

Obs. 5. There are also a few adverbs employed as relatives, which we must notice here.

1.) *So*, *so*, is sometimes (chiefly in poetry) used as a relative pronoun for all genders and numbers; but only in the nominative and accusative; as, *Die Blume, so dort blüthete*, *the flower which blossomed there*; *Von allen, so da kamen*, *of all who came*.

2.) *Wo*, like the English *where*, is used often relatively; chiefly in reference to places; as, *An jener Stelle, wo das Haus stand*, *on that spot where (on which) the house stood*. As a relative it is also compounded with the same prepositions as *da* (see § 64, *Obs. 4.*), and may then, like this particle, refer to any noun not denominating persons. It therefore answers in these compounds to the English *what* or *which*, but never to *who*; as, *Womit kann ich Ihnen dienen?* *with what (or wherewith) can I serve you?* *Ich weiß wodurch Sie ihn beleidigt haben*, *I know by what you have offended him*; *Das sind Dinge, wovon ich nichts wußte*, *these are things of which I knew nothing*. As may partly be seen from the preceding examples, these relative compounds are formed in the same manner as the demonstrative compounds mentioned § 64, *Obs. 4.*: and, accordingly, the letter *r* is also in them inserted before prepositions beginning with a vowel; as, *worüber*, *at what, or which*; *worin*, *worein*, *in what, or which*; *worauf*, *whereupon*, &c.

3.) *Da* is sometimes used as a relative,—especially in reference to time; as, *In dem augenblicke, da (for in welchem) er mich sah*, *at the moment in which he saw me*. We may also observe here, that if a monosyllabic relative is followed immediately by its verb, *da* is often placed as an expletive after the relative; as, *Er sey, wer da wolle*, *let him be who he may*; *Alles, was da lebt*, *all that lives*.

Obs. 6. It has been justly observed by some English grammarians, that an interrogative pronoun is but a relative referring to a noun understood, or expected in the answer; thus, “Who did it?” is tantamount to “Tell me *the man* who did it.” In German, therefore, as in other languages, there is no difference between interrogative and relative pronouns; and the only thing to be considered (as observed above) is, whether the antecedent of these pronouns is expressed, or not. The latter, it is true, is *always* the case with interrogatives; but this omission of the antecedent cannot constitute a characteristic of them, since it often takes place also with relatives, as may be seen in the above examples.

We may add here, that all the interrogatives—*wer, was, welcher*, and *wo*—are in familiar language used in the indefinite sense of *some*;—*viz.* *wer* for *jemand, somebody*; *was* for *etwas, something*; *welcher* for *einiger, some*; and *wo* for *irgend wo, somewhere*; as, *Ist wer (jemand) krank im Hause?* *is any one ill in the house?* *Er hat Ihnen was zu sagen, he has to tell you something*; *Ich habe keine Bücher, aber mein Bruder hat welche, I have no books, but my brother has some*; *Ich habe ihn wo gesehen, I have seen him somewhere.*

§ 66. QUANTITATIVE PRONOUNS.

Under this name we comprehend the following:—*jeder, jeglicher*, or *jedweder* (of which the latter two are falling into disuse), *every, each*; *aller, all*; *mancher, many a one*; *einiger, some*; *etliche* (used only in the plural), *some*; *mehrere* (pl.), *several*; *kein, no, not a*; *viel, much, or many*; and *wenig, little, or few*; with their comparatives *mehr* and *weniger*, and their superlatives *meist* and *wenigst* (§ 55).

To these may, perhaps, be added, *beide, both*; *einer, one*; and *andere, others*; of which we have treated under the head of Numbers.

Kein is declined like *mein* (§ 29); all the others have the complete declension of definitives (§ 29). Except *viel* and *wenig*; for although these two often have the same declension,—as, *wenige Mühe, little trouble*; *mit vielem Gelde, with much money, &c.*—yet, in the singular, they more generally remain uninflected, especially *wenig*; as, *viel Wasser und wenig Wein, much water and little wine*; *mit wenig Wit und viel Behagen, with little wit and much self-complacency*. In the plural, however, they are oftener inflected than not; and in the genitive, the inflection is, indeed, indispensable; as, *wenige Augenblicke, few moments*; *nach vielen Jahren, after many years*; *ein Vater vieler (not viel) Kinder, a father of many children*. When used substantively (§ 62), they are always inflected; as, *Er kennt viele, ist aber nur von wenigen gekannt, he knows many, but is known only by few* *.

* The uninflected *viel* and *wenig* would seem to partake somewhat of the nature of substantives, and to be *partitives*, and not definitives,—that is, denoting a part of the following substantive, but leaving that substantive itself

If preceded by any definitive, they are declined like an adjective; as, *daß viele Geld*, *the great deal of money*; *mein wenigß Vermögen*, *my little property*. This is invariably the case with their superlatives, they being always preceded by a definitive; as, *die meisten Menschen*, *most people*; *daß wenigste*, *the least*.

But their comparatives remain, very generally, uninflected—especially *mehr*; as, *Er hat mehr Brüder und weniger Schwestern als ich*, *he has more brothers and fewer sisters than I*; *mit mehr Glück als Verstand*, *with more good luck than wit*; *Ich habe deren mehr*, *I have more of them*.

Jeder is also declined like an adjective if preceded by *ein*,—viz. Nominative, *ein jeder*, *eine jede*, *ein jedes*; Genitive, *eines jeden*, *einer jeden*, &c. There is, however, no difference in the import of *jeder*, whether preceded by *ein*, or not.

Obs. 1. We add the following particulars respecting the use of the above pronouns:—

1.) Jeder is not used in the plural, except in the expression *alle und jede*, *all and each*; and the English *every*, referring to a substantive in the plural number, is generally rendered by *alle*; as, *every seven years*, *alle sieben Jahre*; *every three hours*, *alle drei Stunden*.

2.) Aller, followed by another definitive, is often used without any inflection; as, *all (for alles) dieses Geld*, *all this money*; *all (for alle) meine Nachbarn*, *all my neighbours*. If preceded by another definitive, it, generally, changes in the dative singular the final *m* into *n*; as, *bei dem allen* (for *allem*), *with all this*; but in all the other cases it retains its usual complete declension. It is frequently placed after the verb, as in English; as, *Meine Freunde haben mich alle verlassen*, *my friends have all forsaken me*.—When preceded by *ohne*, it denotes *any*; as, *ohne allen*

unlimited. Thus *mit viel Vergnügen* would, grammatically, be equivalent to *with a great deal of pleasure*; and *wenig Leute*, to *a small number of people*; whilst *mit vielem Vergnügen* simply means *with much pleasure*; and *wenige Leute*, *few people*. This would account for the practice, formerly much in use, of the substantive taking the genitive inflection after the uninflected *viel* and *wenig*,—such expressions as *viel Viehes*, *much (of) cattle*; *wenig Wassers*, *little (of) water*, &c. being of frequent occurrence in the Bible. And it is still not quite out of use in a few instances; as, *viel Aufhebens* (or *viel Wesens*) *machen*, *to make much ado*; though, in general, the substantive is put in apposition with these words, in the same manner as it is with substantives denoting quantity; and we say now, *viel Vieh*, and *wenig Wasser*, as we say, *eine Menge Vieh*, *a number of cattle*; *ein Tropfen Wasser*, *a drop of water*; *ein Pfund Zucker*, *a pound of sugar*.

Zweifel, without any doubt. If the English *all* is used in the sense of *whole*, or the *whole of*, it is mostly rendered in German by *gan*z, and not by *aller*; as, *all England*, *gan*z England; *all the nation*, *die ganze Nation*; *all the year*, *das ganze Jahr*. Finally we observe, that though *aller* may be followed by demonstratives, as in the above examples, it is, in general, not followed by the article; as, *alle* (not *alle die*) *Städte von Europa*, *all the towns of Europe*; *aller Wein*, *all the wine*. If, however, the substantive after *aller* is the antecedent to a relative clause, *aller* is sometimes followed by *der*, *die*, *das*, answering to the English *the*; as, *Mit all dem Guten, das wir Euch nicht genug verdanken können* (Lessing), *with all the good, for which we cannot sufficiently thank you*. Before *meinige*, *deinige*, &c. (see § 63, *Obs.*) the article cannot be dispensed with, though preceded by *all*; as, *all das Seinige*; *all his property*.

3.) *Mancher* denotes a plurality of single and unconnected objects, detached from each other in space or time, or intermixed with others of a different quality,—which idea is aptly expressed in English by *many a one*; as, *Mancher Held fiel in jener Schlacht*, *many a hero fell in that battle*; *Ich habe manchen frohen Tag in seinem Hause zugebracht*, *I have spent many a happy day at his house*,—that is, at different periods. This idea of intermixture is prevalent also in the plural, and forms its principal distinction from *mehrere*, *several*, and *viele*, *many*, which refer merely to the extent of the quantity. Thus, *Es waren manche Menschen im Zimmer, die es sahen*, *there were many* (or *several*) *people in the room who saw it*, would imply that there were others there who did not see it; but if all those who were in the room saw it, their number must be denoted by *einige*, *mehrere*, or *viele*, according to its extent, but not by *manche*.

4.) *Einiger* is more generally employed in the plural, without being however unusual in the singular, where it is principally used before aggregate and abstract nouns; as, *Der Feind verlor einiges Geschütz*, *the enemy lost some artillery*; *einige Mühe*, *some trouble*.

5.) *Viel* and *wenig* are used sometimes in the sense of *kinds of*, in which case they are always inflected. As these words, when denoting *much* and *little*, are generally uninflected, more especially in the nom. masc., and the nom. and accus. neuter, there arises sometimes a nice distinction between the inflected and uninflected *viel* and *wenig*; as, *Ich trinke wenig Wein, weil weniger Wein unverfälscht ist*, *I drink little wine, because few wines are unadulterated*; *Viel Bier ist ungesund*, *much beer is not healthy*; *Vieles Bier ist ungesund*, *many beers are unwholesome*.

Like the grammatical root of adjectives (§ 50), the uninflected *viel* and *wenig* may be used, both abstractedly and adverbially; as, *Das ist wenig* (or *viel*), *that is little* (or *much*); *Er schläft viel*, *he sleeps*

much. A distinction is thus drawn between *viel*, *much*, used adverbially, and *viele*, used substantively, and denoting *many things* (see *Obs. 2*); as, *Er lernt viel, aber nicht viele*, *he learns much, but not many things*. *Wenige*, however, is not used in a similar sense of *a few things*. *Ein Wenige* denotes *something small in quantity*, also a *trifle*, and must be distinguished from *ein wenig*, *a little*, which is used both as a partitive and as an adverb, and is indeclinable even in the article; as, *Was ich Ihnen geben kann, ist nur ein Wenige*, *what I can afford you is but a small quantity**; *Gib mir ein wenig davon*, *give me a little of it*; *mit ein* (not *einem*) *wenig Wein*, *with a little wine*; *Warte ein wenig*, *wait a little*.

6.) Grammarians differ widely with regard to the declension of the comparatives *mehr* and *weniger*. According to Adelung, these words are always uninflected in the nominative and accusative of both numbers, but in the genitive and dative they should be inflected like adjectives; in which cases, he adds, *mehr* takes the form *mehrer*; as, Genitive (masc. and neut.) *mehreren*, *wenigeren*, (fem.) *mehrerer*, *wenigerer*; Dative (masc. and neut.) *mehrerem*, *wenigerem*, &c. Other grammarians assert, that these comparatives should be declined through all cases like adjectives; namely, Nom. *mehrer*, *mehre*, *mehres*; *wenigerer*, *e*, *es*; Gen. *mehren*, &c. Nevertheless it may be said, that the more common usage, especially in colloquial language, is to leave *mehr* and *weniger* uninflected, and to employ the form *mehrer* as a distinct word denoting *several*†.—See *mehrere* at the beginning of this section, and note (†), page 111.

Obs. 2. The quantitative pronouns may be used substantively—i. e. without reference to a preceding or following noun,—in the plural, to denote persons, and in the neuter singular, to denote things (§ 62); but not in the other genders of the singular. Except *mancher*, *many a one*, which is used substantively also in the masculine singular; and *feiner*, *none*, and *jeder*, *every*, which are so used only in the masculine singular. The two last, therefore, cannot denote things substantively; and the English *nothing* is rendered by *nichts* (not *feines*), and *everything* by *alles* (not *jedes*). The following are examples: *Mancher glaubt, daß ihm* (or *manche glauben, daß ihnen*) *keiner überlegen sey*, *many a person thinks* (or *many think*) *that none is superior to him* (or *them*); *Ein Haus steht jedem* (or *allen*) *offen*, *his house is open to everybody* (or *all*); *Aller Augen sind auf ihn gerichtet*, *all eyes* (the eyes of *all*) *are directed on him*; *Er sah viele*, *he saw many things*, *admired some few*,

* In Lessing's tragedy of *Emilia Galotti*, the prince, after having insinuated that a painter must work much, qualifies it by adding, *Ich meine nicht viele sondern viel; ein Wenige, aber mit Fleiß*, *I do not mean many (pictures), but much (painting); a small quantity, but with care*.

† The difference between *mehr* and *mehrer* is the same as that between the French *plus* and *plusieurs*.

and blamed *many* (a thing); Er glaubt, er wisse alles; und doch weiß er nichts, *he thinks he knows everything, and yet he knows nothing.*

Obs. 3. As referring to quantity, we may also notice here the indeclinable words, *genug, enough; etwas, something, anything*; and its negative, *nichts, nothing, not anything*. The first may precede or follow its substantive, as in English; as, *genug Geld, or Geld genug, money enough*. It takes the substantive sometimes in the genitive; as, *Geldes genug, money enough*; *Ich habe der Feinde genug, I have enemies enough*.—*Etwas* and *nichts* are frequently followed by an adjective, as in English; which is then always in the neuter gender, and employed substantively; as, *Wissen Sie etwas Neues? do you know anything-new? etwas Großes, something great; nichts Gutes, nothing (or not anything) good*. *Etwas* is also used in the sense of *some*; but only before substantives in the singular number; as, *etwas Brod, some bread; mit etwas Mühe, with some trouble*. If used adverbially, it denotes *somewhat, a little, or rather*; as, *Sie befindet sich etwas besser, she finds herself somewhat (a little) better*.

Obs. 4. The translation of the English words *some* and *any* being rather intricate, the following remarks will be found useful. If they imply a contradistinction—e.g. to *much, many, or none*,—they are rendered in the singular by *etwas* or *einiger*, and in the plural by *einige* only; as, *Give me at least some money, geben Sie mir wenigstens etwas Geld; Is there any hope left? ist noch einige Hoffnung? Some people, einige Leute*. But if they do not imply any contradistinction, we have to consider whether one might (with little change of import,) substitute in English the indefinite article, or not; in the latter case they are, generally, not translated in German; as, *Bring me some water, bringe mir Wasser; Will you have any wine? wollen Sie Wein haben? Has he any friends here? hat er Freunde hier? ** In the former case they are rendered by *ein*; to which *irgend* may be prefixed, if we wish to express more strongly the indefiniteness of the substantive; as, *There is some boy below, es ist ein Knabe unten; Has he any brother? hat er einen Bruder? I read it in some book, ich habe es in irgend einem Buche gelesen; Some fool must have done that, irgend ein Narr muß das gethan haben*. If *any* is equivalent to *every, or each*, it is generally rendered by *jeder*; as, *Any of us could do that, jeder von uns könnte das thun; You may come at any time, Sie können zu jeder Zeit kommen*. Before substantives, *not any* is always rendered by *kein*; *not a* is also commonly

* *Some* and *any* in these examples answer to the French article partitive (*du pain, some bread; avez vous de l'eau? have you any water?*); and the difference between them and the same words in the first three examples, is analogous to that between the article *a* and the numeral *one*.

so rendered ; but before adjectives in the comparative degree, *not any*, or *no*, is rendered by *nicht* ; as, *I have not any money with me*, *ich habe kein Geld bei mir* ; *You do not drink any wine*, *Sie trinken keinen Wein* ; *Not a day passed without &c.*, *kein Tag verging ohne &c.* ; *Not any* (or *no*) *longer*, *nicht länger* ; *Not any further*, *nicht weiter*.

THE VERB.

§ 67. The verbs may be divided into *Intransitive*, *Transitive*, *Reflective*, and *Impersonal* ; regarding which we observe as follows :—

1. The *intransitive* (or *neuter*) verbs denote either a state,—as, “He sleeps,” “He lives,”—or an action which is confined to the agent, that is, which does not pass over to another object,—as, “He walks,” “He laughs.”

2. The *transitive* (or *active*) verbs denote an action which passes over, or is directed to, another object ; as, “He beats” (the child), “He admires” (the statue).—A transitive action may be expressed in two different forms, or voices, as they are generally termed,—the *active*, and the *passive* ; the former has the agent, the latter the sufferer of the action, for its nominative. Thus one says *actively*, “The man struck the boy,”—*passively*, “The boy was struck by the man.” It must, however, be observed, that there is no form of conjugation *exclusively* active ; the form of the active voice being common both to transitive and to neuter verbs. Indeed, many verbs—such as *to melt*, *to dry*, &c.—are used in the same form both transitively and intransitively. It is only in contradistinction to the passive voice therefore, that this form can be called the active voice.

3. A transitive action becomes reflective, if the agent directs it to himself instead of another object ; as, “He admires *himself*,” “I wounded *myself*.” In such cases, the action being reflective is denoted merely by the reflective pronoun (§ 60), the verb itself retaining its usual transitive import. *Reflective verbs*, properly so called, are such as are never used transitively, and yet are attended by a re-

flexive pronoun; as, *to betake oneself, to bethink oneself, to pique oneself, to behave oneself, to bestir oneself, to pride oneself, &c.* This class of verbs is very numerous in German, though extremely limited in English.

We consider, however, transitives attended by a reflexive pronoun, *also* as reflexive verbs, if they become modified in their verbal import by this attendance. Thus the verbs, *to forget oneself, to recollect oneself, to lose oneself, to set oneself down, to lay oneself down*, may be regarded as reflexives, having a different signification from the mere transitives, *to forget, to recollect, to lose, to set down, to lay down* (i. e. *some other object*). It may be said, that these verbs have, in the reflexive form, assumed an intransitive import; as is particularly obvious in the last two examples, which are perfectly equivalent to the neuter verbs, *to sit down, to lie down*.

Obs. 1. Reflexives of this description, too, are in German more frequent than in English; many transitive verbs—such as *versammeln, to assemble; bewegen, to move; vermehren, to increase; dehnen, to extend, &c. &c.*—assuming the reflexive form when used intransitively, whilst the corresponding English verbs are used in the same form both transitively and intransitively; as, *Er versammelte das Volk, he assembled the people—Das Volk versammelte sich, the people assembled; Er bewegt das Rad, he moves the wheel—Das Rad bewegt sich von selbst, the wheel moves of itself.*

4. Impersonal verbs are such as cannot be predicated of persons, and have, generally, the indefinite pronoun *es, it* (§ 59, *Obs. 3.*), for their nominative. They are chiefly used to denote events which we cannot attribute to any definite subject,—such as, changes in the atmosphere, the progress of time, &c.; as, “It thunders,” “It freezes,” “It was Sunday,” &c.—In German, temporary sensations are likewise expressed often impersonally (see § 88).

Obs. 2. To this class we refer all verbs not admitting persons for their nominative, even those which admit things as such. Thus, *es gelingt, it succeeds; es geschieht, it happens; es verdrießt mich, it vexes me*, are impersonal verbs,—as we cannot say, *ich gelinge, ich geschehe, &c.*; though we can say, *Das Unternehmen gelingt, the undertaking succeeds;*

Dieses Unglück geschah gestern, *this misfortune happened yesterday*; Die Sache verdrießt mich, *the affair vexes me*. Es, in such cases has, perhaps, a definite import, and refers to the clause or infinitive following it.

The accidents of verbs denoted by the conjugation are *moods and participles* *, *tenses, persons, and numbers*.

MOODS AND PARTICIPLES.

§ 68. There are four moods,—viz. the *Indicative, Subjunctive, Imperative, and Infinitive*. The indicative, imperative, and infinitive, correspond very nearly to the respective English moods, and need therefore no explanation in this place. Of the nature of the German subjunctive, however, which differs in a main point from the English, we premise here, that it has two leading principles:—

1st, That of *reporting*, or rather of giving a proposition merely as the substance, or object, of a preceding noun or verb, and as unascertained by the speaker. Thus if we say, “They are rich,” their being rich is our own assertion, and therefore the verb must be in the indicative; but if we say, “She maintains that they are rich,” their being rich is unascertained by us, and is introduced as the mere object of the preceding word “maintains,” and therefore requires in German the subjunctive mood. Thus also in the sentence, “The question is not, whether he will, but whether he can,” the verbs “will” and “can” are in the subjunctive, being the object of “question;” but the verb “is,” being the speaker’s own assertion, must be in the indicative.

2nd, That of *imagining* a case *in opposition to reality* (which in English also requires the subjunctive). Thus in the expressions, “If he were at home, he could see her,” the first two verbs must be in the subjunctive, as the con-

* The participles are by some grammarians, not improperly, classed with the infinitive; the latter being a verbal substantive, the former a verbal adjective, but both being devoid of assertion or attribution.

trary is inferred, viz. that he is not at home, and therefore cannot see her.

Obs. 1. This latter point is essential in the second rule; for a hypothetical assertion of the speaker, implying uncertainty with regard to fact, requires the indicative. Thus in the phrases, "If he was at home and did not see her, he acted wrongly," "If that be true, I shall be glad," all the verbs must, in German, be in the indicative, as the premises of the conditions they contain are unascertained with regard to fact.

From what has been said it will be perceived, that if the English imperfect refers to *present* or *future* time—which always implies the contrary fact—as, "I could do it (i. e. now or tomorrow) if I had time,"—the corresponding verbs in German must be in the subjunctive (*fönntè, hätte*); but if referring to *past* time—as, "I could not do it, because I had no time"—the verbs must be in the indicative in German (*fonnte, hatte*). Further, that the verb of an hypothetical expression in the present tense must be in the indicative in German, as it always implies an uncertainty with regard to fact; as, *If that be true, &c., wenn das wahr ist, &c.* (not *sey*).

To the preceding four moods might be added the *potential* mood (I can, may, must, &c. write); but the import of this mood being denoted, or rather circumscribed, entirely by auxiliary verbs (so that to understand the signification of the latter is to know the function of this mood), it has been thought rather more correct, and much more simple, to exclude this mood from the German conjugation, and to explain the import of its auxiliaries separately hereafter.—See § 82.

There are two participles, the *participle present* (*lobend, praising*), and *participle past* (*gelobt, praised*); which answer respectively to the same participles in English,—the former denoting action in progress; the latter, perfect or finished action.

Obs. 2. The participle past cannot be joined in German with the participle present of another verb; and we cannot, therefore, form such compound participles as "having praised," "being praised," "having been praised."—When the participle present is preceded by the particle *zu* (which can be the case only when it is used as an adjective), it assumes a future passive signification; as will be explained hereafter in treating of the participle.

TENSES.

§ 69. The tenses are the same as in English; namely, *Present* (I write), *Imperfect* (I wrote), *Perfect* (I have written), *Pluperfect* (I had written), *First* or *Simple Future* (I shall write), *Second* or *Perfect Future* (I shall have written). We retain these names, as familiar to the learner, but will arrange the tenses in a manner more suitable to their signification.—In the conjugation of the verb, chiefly in the infinitive and indicative moods, two kinds of action are distinguished: 1st, *Simple* or *Indefinite* action; in which no reference is made either to its beginning, proceeding, or finishing—as, “to write,” “he writes;” 2dly, *Complete* or *Perfect* action—as, “to have written,” “he has written.” Each of these actions has, in the indicative, three tenses, respectively referring to the three divisions of time, viz. present, past, and future; as is exhibited in the following table:—

<i>Indefinite action.</i>	<i>Complete action.</i>
Present.	
(Present)	(Perfect)
I write.	I have written.
Past.	
(Imperfect)	(Pluperfect)
I wrote.	I had written.
Future.	
(1st Future)	(2nd Future)
I shall write.	I shall have written.

Each tense in the preceding table corresponds in time to the tense opposite to it; only that in the tenses of indefinite action, the time referred to is that of the action, whilst in the tenses of complete action, it is that posterior to it, when the action has ceased*. Thus, in the phrases, “He *wrote* that letter when I came home,” and “He *had* already

* Even an imperative of complete action is sometimes formed by the same combination as the tenses in question, importing a command to cease. Thus the English expression “Have done!” is equivalent to “Cease!”

written that letter when I came home," the time referred to is in both tenses that of my coming home; only in the former phrase, the coming home was contemporary, or nearly so, with his writing; in the other, it was subsequent to the writing. The same remark applies to the expressions, "Now I *see* him," and "Now I *have seen* him;" "In an hour I shall do it," and "In an hour I shall *have done* it." The tenses of complete action, indicating, in their primary import, that an action was finished and over at a certain point of time, imply by inference also that its performance took place previous to that moment; and this inference forms very frequently their principal import, especially with the perfect tense. Thus, "They have opened the door," answers not only to "The door is opened," but also, and more frequently, to "The door has been opened;" the former refers more directly to the present result of a previous cause or action; the latter more directly to the previous cause of the present result. So also the pluperfect, "He had paid his debts," may answer to "His debts were paid," and to "His debts had been paid." It will be seen from these examples, that the passive voice has distinct expressions for referring directly to the result of an action, and for referring to the action as the cause of the result; which in the active voice cannot be distinguished. (Compare this with § 79).—These remarks do not apply to all the tenses of the subjunctive; some of which correspond more in form than in import with their respective tenses of the indicative.—See § 78.

As implying merely imaginary events, we refer to the subjunctive the two *conditional* tenses, as they are often called by grammarians, namely, "I should write," and "I should have written." Some grammarians call them *future conditional* tenses. That they in themselves do not imply future time with regard to the moment of speaking, is obvious (see also § 78); but they have some analogy to future tenses, inasmuch as they imply a sequel to a previous position.

Obs. The perfect, implying action performed previously to the present moment, may appear to coincide with the imperfect; with which, indeed, it is sometimes used promiscuously in German. The difference however is, that the perfect stands always in some relation to the moment of speaking, which moment is the point of view, if so we may call it, from which the event is perceived; whilst in the imperfect, the moment of speaking is lost sight of, we are transported in mind to the time of the action, and see the events passing, as it were, before our eyes, forgetting that that time is now over. Hence, in lively narration, the present tense is often used instead of the imperfect, but never instead of the perfect. With regard to principle, therefore, the German and English seem to agree in the distinction of these two tenses. Yet, in German, only such past events as are connected with others of past time, are generally expressed as in English by the imperfect alone: thus in the phrases, "When I went out this morning, I met your friend," "My brother arrived last Friday from Paris, and set out the same day for Dublin," the same tenses would be used in German as in English. But solitary events, unconnected with others, are more frequently expressed by the perfect than by the imperfect tense, though they took place at a time now entirely past. Thus, contrary to the English idiom, we may say in German, "I have met your friend yesterday," "My brother has returned from Paris last week." This may be accounted for by the habit of the mind, of conceiving everything, whether in space or time, in connexion with other things of the same nature, and never as solitary or detached from all the rest. By this habit, therefore, we involuntarily conceive the time of a past event which we cannot connect with other past events, as contiguous to, or as connected with, the present, passing over the interval as a mere vacuum.

PERSONS AND NUMBERS.

§ 70. Each tense, both of the indicative and subjunctive, has two numbers and three persons,—that is, the verb marks by inflections, whether its nominative be in the singular or plural, and whether it be the person speaking (*I* or *we*), or the person spoken to (*thou* or *you*), or any other subject. According to the last three cases, the verb is said to be in the *first*, *second*, or *third person*. With the exception, therefore, of the personal pronouns, *I*, *thou*, *we*, and *you*, every nominative to the verb, whether a pronoun (as *he*, *she*, *it*, *they*, *one*, *who*, *this*, *somebody*, &c. &c.), or a substantive, or even a proposition, causes the verb to be in

the third person; though, for uniformity's sake, only the personal pronouns *he* and *they* are put in the tables of conjugation as nominatives of the third person.

THE REGULAR CONJUGATION.

§ 71. There is only one conjugation of the regular verbs in German; which is formed partly by Inflections, and partly by Auxiliary verbs. We will treat first of the inflections, then of the auxiliary verbs, after which we shall give a table of the whole conjugation.

INFLECTIONS.

§ 72. Respecting the inflections of the regular verbs, we observe as follows:—

1. The infinitive—which is always found in the Dictionary—ends in *en* or *n* (§ 73); which termination being taken away, we have the grammatical root (§ 27, *Obs.*) of the verb. Thus, the grammatical roots of the infinitives *reden*, *antworten*, *jittern*, are *red*, *antwort*, *jitter*.

2. The inflections of persons and numbers (§ 70) are these:

	1st	2nd	3rd person.
Sing.	<i>e</i> ,	<i>est</i> ,	<i>e</i> or <i>et</i> (<i>et</i> only in the pres. indic.).
Plur.	<i>en</i> ,	<i>et</i> ,	<i>en</i> .

3. In the *present* tense, the above inflections are annexed immediately to the grammatical root.

4. The *imperfect* has the appropriate inflection *et*; which, like the corresponding *ed* in English (“I worked,” “I waited”), is annexed to the root, and the above inflections of persons and numbers are superadded to it.

5. The imperative adds, in the 2nd pers. sing., generally, *t* to the root; the other persons are like the corresponding persons of the present tense subjunctive. We may also observe, that in the imperative the nominative must follow the verb, or be entirely omitted.—See the table.

6. The participle present annexes *end* to the root: the participle past annexes *et*; and, in verbs beginning with an *accented* syllable, it takes, moreover, the prefix *ge*, or

the *augment*, as it is generally termed by grammarians.— See § 74. The following table exhibits all the parts of a regular verb formed by inflections; the latter are, for a better survey, put in *Italics*.

Schaden *, to injure.

INDICATIVE.		SUBJUNCTIVE.	
		Present.	(it is said)
Sing.	ich schade, I injure.	ich schade, I injure.	
	du schadest, thou injurest.	du schadest, thou injurest.	
	er schade, he injures.	er schade, he injures.	
Plur.	wir schaden, we injure.	wir schaden, we injure.	
	ihr schadet, you injure.	ihr schadet, you injure.	
	sie schaden, they injure.	sie schaden, they injure.	
		Imperfect.	(if)
Sing.	ich schadete, I injured.	ich schadete, I injured.	
	du schadetest, thou injuredst.	du schadetest, thou injuredst.	
	er schadete, he injured.	er schadete, he injured.	
Plur.	wir schaden, we injured.	wir schaden, we injured.	
	ihr schadetet, you injured.	ihr schadetet, you injured.	
	sie schaden, they injured.	sie schaden, they injured.	
		IMPERATIVE.	INFINITIVE.
Sing.	schade (du), (schade Er, or Sie †,) } injure (thou).	schaden, to injure.	
Plur.	schaden wir, let us injure.	PARTICIPLES.	
	schadet (ihr), } injure (you.)	Pres. schadend, injuring.	
	(schaden Sie †,)	Past. geschadet, injured.	

* The particle *zu*, *to*, is never employed in dictionaries and grammars before the infinitive as the mere sign of this mood; though it must precede it, like *to* in English, when governed by another word; as, *Er wünschet zu schaden*, *he wishes to injure*; *begierig zu hören*, *anxious to hear*; &c.

† These forms, referring to the second person (in agreement with the manner of address peculiar to the German—see § 39, *Obs.* 2.), must not be rendered in English by *let him, her, or them injure*: to express this sense in German, the nominative is placed before its verb; in other words, the imperative—considering the nominative never preceding its verb as a characteristic of it—has no appropriate form for the third person, the present of the subjunctive being employed instead; as, *Er schade*, *let him injure*; *Ein jeder thue seine Pflicht*, *let every one do his duty*; *Es werde Licht*, *let there be light*.

§ 73. The *e* immediately following the grammatical root, is often dropped when followed by other letters of inflection; concerning which omission the following rules must be observed:—

1. If the last radical letter be *t*, *h*, or *n* preceded by any consonant but *r*—as, *richten*, to judge; *wüthen*, to rage; *reden*, to speak; *öffnen*, to open; *rechnen*, to reckon—the omission cannot take place, and all such verbs must be inflected exactly like *schaden*.

2. On the other hand, if the last radical syllable be an unaccented *er*, or *el*—as, *fodern*, to ask; *segeln*, to sail—that omission takes place throughout the conjugation, even in the infinitive: and we may add, that in those cases where the *e* of inflection is not followed by a consonant, the *e* of the last radical syllable is mostly omitted. For instance, *wandern*, to wander, is conjugated thus:—

INDICATIVE.

Present.

ich wandre (or wandere).
du wanderst.
er wandert.
wir wandern.
ihr wandert.
sie wandern.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

ich wandre (or wandere).
du wanderst.
er wandre (or wandere).
wir wandern.
ihr wandert.
sie wandern.

Imperfect.

ich wanderte.
du wandertest, &c.

ich wanderte.
du wandertest, &c.

IMPERATIVE.

Sing. wandre (or wandere).
 Plur. wandert.

PARTICIPLES.

Pres. wandernd.
 Past. gewandert.

Thus also, *schmeicheln*, to flatter—*ich* schmeichle, I flatter; *du* schmeichlest, &c.

3. But all verbs not belonging to the two preceding classes—as, *hoffen*, to hope; *machen*, to make; *warnen*, to warn; *danke*, to thank, &c.—retain the *e* before *n*; but before *t*, and mostly also before *st*, the omission of the *e* is, on the whole, optional, though throughout the subjunctive

mood it is more generally retained, and in the imperfect of the indicative more generally omitted.

Thus *machen*, *to make*—Present ind. *ich mache*, *du machst* or *machest*, *er macht* or *machet*, *wir machen*, &c.—Imperfect ind. *ich machte*, *du machtest*, *er machte*, *wir machten*, &c.—or, less commonly, *ich machete*, *du machetest*, &c.—Present subj. *ich mache*, *du machest*, &c.—Imperfect subj. *ich machete*, *du machetest*, *er machete*—or, less commonly, *ich machte*, *du machtest*, *er machte*, &c.—Part. past, *gemacht* or *gemachet*.—Before *ſt*, however, the *e* is not omitted in verbs ending radically in a hissing sound (*ſ*, *ß*, *ſch*, *ß*); as, *reisen*, *to travel*; *grüßen*, *to greet*; *wünſchen*, *to wish*; *ſchätzen*, *to esteem*;—*du reißeſt*, *du wünſcheſt*, &c.—not *du reiſſeſt*, &c.

Before *t* of inflection, the omission is frequently marked by an apostrophe (’), if the root ends in *ſ*; as, *er reiſt*, *ich reiſte*, &c.

The *e* of the 2nd person singular of the imperative, is often omitted in verbs of which the root does not end in an unaccented syllable; as, *hol*, *fetch*; *wart*, *wait*; *dreh*, *turn*, &c.—for *hole*, *warte*, *drehe*, &c.

§ 74. We have already said (§ 72) that the participle past takes the augment (the prefix *ge*) only if the verb begins with an accented syllable; accordingly, the following verbs, which begin with an unaccented syllable, do not admit of the augment in the participle past:—1.) All verbs beginning with one of the seven prefixes, *be*, *emp*, *ent*, *er*, *ge*, *ver*, and *zer* (§ 15); as, *beſuchen*, *to visit*; *entdecken*, *to discover*; *gehörchen*, *to obey*; *verkaufen*, *to sell*, &c.—Part. past, *beſucht*, *entdeckt*, *gehört*, *verkauft*, &c. 2.) All verbs of more than two syllables ending in *iren* (or *ieren*); as, *ſtudiren*, *to study*; *gratuliren*, *to congratulate*; *buchſtabiren*, *to spell*; *haufiren*, *to hawk goods*—Part. past, *ſtudirt*, *gratulirt*, &c. —3.) All the compound verbs mentioned in § 17; as, *widerlegen*, *to refute*; *unterhandeln*, *to negotiate*—Part. past, *widerlegt*, *unterhandelt*.

The augment is never placed at the beginning of verbs compounded with separable particles (see the compound verbs), but is inserted between the particle and the verb; or omitted altogether, if the latter begins with an unaccented syllable; as, *abreißen*, *to depart*; *abmarſchiren*, *to march away*; *anvertrauen*, *to intrust*—Part. past, *abgereiſet*, *abmarſchirt*, *anvertrauet*.

Obs. 1. To the above verbs may be added, *prophezeien, to prophesy; fassen, to chastise* (which, with *bedeuten*, are the only verbs derived from foreign languages which do not end in *iren*); and *offenbaren, to divulge or reveal*. The last verb however, if referring to the Revelation, occurs often with the augment; as, *die geoffenbarte Religion, the revealed religion*. The participle past of *bedeuten, to bless*; though the first syllable is unaccented, frequently has the augment.

Obs. 2. In several verbs compounded with *miß*, grammarians differ with regard to the accentuation, and, consequently, also with regard to the use of the augment depending on it. Thus, the verbs *mißglücken, to fail; mißtrauen, to distrust, &c.*, are accented by some on the first, by others on the second, syllable. It may, therefore, be proper to observe, that though *miß* never occurs now but as a component part of other words, its import, like that of *mis* in English, is still distinctly felt in the composition: and as it, generally, limits the second part of the compound, and forms its sole distinction from the simple word, verbs compounded with this particle ought, according to the nature of German accentuation (§ 19), to have the principal accent on their first syllable, and their participles past the augment*. Thus, the participle past of *mißbilligen, to disapprove; mißbrauchen, to abuse; mißleiten, to mislead*, must be *gemißbilliget, &c.*—these compounds being distinguished from the simple verbs, *billigen, to approve; brauchen, to use; and leiten, to lead*, merely by the import of the particle. The four verbs mentioned § 17, viz. *mißfallen, to displease; mißhandeln, to ill-treat; mißlingen, to fail; mißrathen, to miscarry*, are the only compounds with *miß* in which this particle does not constitute this sole distinction; for *fallen* denotes *to fall*,—not *to please*, for which we say *gefallen*; *handeln* denotes *to act*,—*to treat* is expressed by *behandeln*; and so the other two. As, therefore, the first syllable of these compounds must, according to analogy (§ 19), be unaccented, their participles cannot, analogically, take the augment. Hence the form *mißhandelt, ill-used*, which is not unsupported by good authority†, seems more correct than the form *gemißhandelt*, which Adelung and others adopt.—See also the Compound Verbs.

AUXILIARY VERBS.

§ 75. The other parts of the conjugation are formed, as in English, by the aid of auxiliary verbs. The tenses thus formed are called compound tenses. The auxiliary verbs

* It must, however, be allowed, that the German verb is adverse to all composition of this kind (see the compound verbs); and it is probably owing to this circumstance, that only few verbs compounded with *miß* are of general usage.

† Von Satrapen *mißhandelt, ill-used by satraps*.—Schiller.

used in the German conjugation are three,—viz. *haben*, to have; *seyn*, to be; and *werden*, to become. These verbs are irregular; but, like all irregular verbs, only in the unpounded parts of their conjugation, which are therefore subjoined: in the formation of their compound parts they, as well as all other irregular verbs (§ 83), follow the same rules as the regular verbs (§ 76).—See the following *Obs.*

Haben, to have.

INDICATIVE.		SUBJUNCTIVE.	
Present.		(it is said)	
Sing. <i>ich habe</i> , <i>I have.</i> <i>du hast</i> , <i>thou hast.</i> <i>er hat</i> , <i>he has.</i>		Sing. <i>ich habe</i> , <i>I have.</i> <i>du habest</i> , <i>thou hast.</i> <i>er habe</i> , <i>he has.</i>	
Plur. <i>wir haben</i> , <i>we have.</i> <i>ihr habet</i> , <i>you have.</i> <i>sie haben</i> , <i>they have.</i>		Plur. <i>wir haben</i> , <i>we have.</i> <i>ihr habet</i> , <i>you have.</i> <i>sie haben</i> , <i>they have.</i>	
Imperfect.		(if)	
Sing. <i>ich hatte</i> , <i>I had.</i> <i>du hättest</i> , <i>thou hadst.</i> <i>er hatte</i> , <i>he had.</i>		Sing. <i>ich hätte</i> , <i>I had.</i> <i>du hättest</i> , <i>thou hadst.</i> <i>er hätte</i> , <i>he had.</i>	
Plur. <i>wir hatten</i> , <i>we had.</i> <i>ihr hättet</i> , <i>you had.</i> <i>sie hatten</i> , <i>they had.</i>		Plur. <i>wir hätten</i> , <i>we had.</i> <i>ihr hättet</i> , <i>you had.</i> <i>sie hätten</i> , <i>they had.</i>	
IMPERATIVE.		INFINITIVE.	
Sing. <i>habe</i> (du) (<i>habe</i> <i>Er</i> , or <i>Sie</i>), } <i>have</i> (thou)		<i>haben</i> to have.	
Plur. <i>haben</i> wir, let us have. <i>habet</i> (ihr) (<i>haben</i> <i>Sie</i>), } <i>have</i> (you).		PARTICIPLES.	
		Present, <i>habend</i> , <i>having.</i> Past, <i>gehabt</i> , <i>had.</i>	

*Seyn**, to be.

INDICATIVE.		SUBJUNCTIVE.	
Present.		(it is said)	
Sing. <i>ich bin</i> , I am.		Sing. <i>ich sey</i> , I am.	
du bist, thou art.		du seyeest or seyst, thou art.	
er ist, he is.		er sey, he is.	
Plur. <i>wir sind</i> , we are.		Plur. <i>wir seyen</i> or <i>seyn</i> , we are.	
ihr seyb, you are.		ihr sey(e)b or seyet, you are.	
sie sind, they are.		sie seyen or seyn, they are.	

* This verb is also spelt *sein*.—See § 25.

Imperfect.

(if)

Sing. ich war, *I was.*
 du warst, *thou wast.*
 er war, *he was.*
 Plur. wir waren, *we were.*
 ihr wart, *you were.*
 sie waren, *they were.*

Sing. ich wäre, *I were.*
 du wärest, *thou wert.*
 er wäre, *he were.*
 Plur. wir wären, *we were.*
 ihr wäret, *you were.*
 sie wären, *they were.*

IMPERATIVE.

INFINITIVE.

Sing. sey (du)
 (sey Er, or Sie), } *be (thou).*
 Plur. seyn wir, *let us be.*
 seyd (ihr)
 (seyn Sie), } *be (you).*

seyn, *to be.*

PARTICIPLES.

Present*, (*sevend, or wesend, being.*)
 Past, *gewesen, been.*

Werden, *to become.*

INDICATIVE.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Present.

(it is said)

Sing. ich werde, *I become.*
 du wirst, *thou becomest.*
 er wird, *he becomes.*
 Plur. wir werden, *we become.*
 ihr werdet, *you become.*
 sie werden, *they become.*

Sing. ich werde, *I become.*
 du werdest, *thou becomest.*
 er werde, *he becomes.*
 Plur. wir werden, *we become.*
 ihr werdet, *you become.*
 sie werden, *they become.*

Imperfect.

(if)

Sing. ich wurde (or ward†), *I became.*
 du wurdest (or wardst), *thou becomest.*
 er wurde (or ward), *he became.*
 Plur. wir wurden, *we became.*
 ihr wurdet, *you became.*
 sie wurden, *they became.*

Sing. ich würde, *I became.*
 du würdest, *thou becomest.*
 er würde, *he became.*
 Plur. wir würden, *we became.*
 ihr würdet, *you became.*
 sie würden, *they became.*

IMPERATIVE.

INFINITIVE.

Sing. werde (du)
 (werde Er, or Sie), } *become (thou).*
 Plur. werden wir, *let us become.*
 werdet (ihr)
 (werden Sie), } *become (you).*

werden, *to become.*

PARTICIPLES.

Present, *werdend, becoming.*
 Past, *geworden, become.*

* The form *sevend* is hardly ever used; *wesend* occurs only in the compounds *anwesend, present*, and *abwesend, absent*.
 † See § 86, Obs. 1.

Obs. The compound tenses of the above auxiliaries are formed, as already observed, like those of other verbs—namely, those of *haben* like those of *loben*, and those of *seyn* and *werden* like those of *reisen* (§ 77)*; consequently, a part of each auxiliary is employed in the formation of some of its own compound parts, as may be seen in the following table:—

PAST INFINITIVE.

gehabt haben, *to have had.*

gewesen seyn, *to have been*; geworden seyn, *to have become.*

INDICATIVE.

Perfect.

ich habe	} gehabt, <i>I have</i>	} <i>thou hast</i>	} <i>had.</i>	ich bin	} gewesen, <i>I have</i>	} <i>thou hast</i>	} <i>been,</i>
du hast				du bist			
er hat				er ist			
wir haben				wir sind			
&c.				&c.			
						or	or
						geworden, <i>we have</i>	<i>become.</i>
						&c.	

Pluperfect.

ich hatte	} gehabt, <i>I had</i>	} <i>thou hadst</i>	} <i>had.</i>	ich war	} gewesen, <i>I had</i>	} <i>thou hadst</i>	} <i>been,</i>
du hattest				du warst			
&c.				&c.			
						or	or
						geworden, &c.	<i>become.</i>

1st Future.

ich werde	} haben, <i>I shall</i>	} <i>thou wilt</i>	} <i>have.</i>	ich werde	} seyn, <i>I shall</i>	} <i>thou wilt</i>	} <i>be,</i>
du wirst				du wirst			
&c.				&c.			
						or	or
						werden, &c.	<i>become.</i>

2nd Future.

ich werde	} gehabt <i>I shall</i>	} <i>have</i>	} <i>ich werde</i>	} gewesen seyn, or <i>I shall</i>	} <i>have been, or</i>
&c.					

Thus also the subjunctive mood; as, Perfect, *ich habe gehabt*, (*it is said*) *I have had*, *du habest gehabt*, *er habe gehabt*, &c.; *ich sey gewesen*, or *geworden*, (*it is said*) *I have been*, or *become*, &c.—Pluperfect, *ich hätte gehabt*, (*if*) *I had had*, &c.; *ich wäre gewesen*, or *geworden*, (*if*) *I had been*, or *become*, &c.—1st and 2nd Futures, *ich werde* (*du werdest*) *haben*, or *gehabt haben*, *I shall* (*thou wilt*) *have*, or *have had*, &c.; *ich werde* (*du werdest*) *seyn*, or *gewesen seyn*, *I shall* (*thou wilt*) *be*, or *have been*, &c.; *ich werde werden*, or *geworden seyn*, *I shall become*, or *have become*, &c.—

* There is, therefore, the less occasion for giving a complete table of all their compound tenses, as *haben* and *seyn* are, in general, not used as auxiliaries in those tenses, and *werden* will be given in its whole conjugation in the table of the passive voice.—See § 77.

1st and 2nd Conditionals, *ich würde haben, I should have, &c.*; *ich würde gehabt haben, I should have had, &c.*; *ich würde seyn, or werden, I should be, or become, &c.*; *ich würde gewesen seyn, or geworden seyn, I should have been, or have become, &c.*

§ 76. With regard to the use of these verbs as auxiliaries in the conjugation of other verbs, we observe as follows:—

1. *haben*, like *to have* in English, is used in the formation of all the parts denoting complete action; its present and imperfect tenses (both in the indicative and subjunctive moods), and its infinitive, being added to the participle past of the principal verb, to form respectively the perfect and pluperfect tenses, and the past infinitive of the latter.

Thus the Perfect of *loben, to praise*; *schaden, to injure*; *wünschen, to wish*, is, *ich habe gelobt, (geschadet, gewünscht) I have praised, (injured, wished), du hast gelobt, &c.*; the Pluperfect, *ich hatte gelobt, (geschadet, gewünscht) I had praised (injured, wished), du hattest gelobt, &c.*; the Past infinitive, *gelobt (geschadet, gewünscht) haben, to have praised (injured, wished)*—literally *praised &c. to have* *.

2. Intransitive verbs however, which imply a change of place, or of state, in the subject of the verb, use the auxiliary *seyn* exactly in the same manner as the others use *haben*.—See § 80.

Thus the intransitives *wandern, to wander*; *abreisen, to depart* (which denote change of place); *erwachen, to awake*; *verblühen, to fade* (which denote a change of state or condition), make the Perfect, *ich bin (not habe) gewandert (abgereiset, erwacht, verblühet), I have (literally I am) wandered (departed, &c.)*; the Pluperfect, *ich war gewandert (abgereiset, &c.), I had (literally I was) wandered (departed, &c.)*; the Past infinitive, *gewandert (abgereiset, erwacht, &c.) seyn, to have (literally to be) wandered (departed, &c.)*.

Obs. 1. The English auxiliary *to be* is sometimes used in the same manner, though only with the indicative of a small number of verbs, and even with these *have* may be used. Thus, though one may say “He is (or was) arrived, departed, come, &c.”, one may also say “He has (or had) arrived, departed, come, &c.”; and one could not say “If he *were* arrived before me,” “I am glad to *be* arrived in time.” The German language is very consistent on this point, and all the verbs of

* The participle of the principal verb always precedes in such combinations the infinitive and participle of the auxiliary. See the table of the passive voice, § 77.

the above description use *seyn exclusively*, and that in *all* the parts denoting complete action.

We may further notice here, that *seyn* is often used also in the passive voice as an auxiliary—namely, if we wish to refer more directly to the result of an event.—See § 79.

3. *Werden*, as an auxiliary, has two different offices: 1.) To help to form the two future and conditional tenses; for which purpose its present, both indicative and subjunctive, and its imperfect subjunctive, are respectively added (as *shall* and *will*, and *should* and *would*, are in English) to the infinitive of the principal verb.—See the tables of conjugation, § 77. 2.) To help to form the passive voice; for which purpose this auxiliary is joined through its whole conjugation to the participle past of the principal verb; and any part of it thus combined, forms the corresponding part of the passive voice. We must further observe, that, in this combination, the participle past of the auxiliary is *worden*, not *geworden*; and that in the singular of its imperfect, the form *wurde* is far more usual than that of *ward*.—See the Passive, § 77.

Obs. 2. It will be observed, that *werden*, having two auxiliary functions, besides its use as a principal verb in the sense of *to become*, must be rendered in English differently, according to the grammatical nature of the word with which it is joined—namely, if joined with an adjective, or a substantive (in which case it is a principal verb), it must be rendered by *to become*, *turn*, *get*, &c.; if joined to a participle past, it is translated by *to be*; and if joined to an infinitive, by *shall* or *will*: as, *Ich werde müde*, *I become (am getting) tired*; *Ich werde geliebt*, *I am loved*; *Ich werde lieben*, *I shall love*; *Wenn er reich würde, dann würde sein Freund ihn besuchen*, *if he became rich, then his friend would come to see him*; *Er ist Soldat geworden*, *he has turned soldier*; *Er ist getadelt worden*, *he has been blamed*; *groß werden* (or *geworden seyn*), *to become* (or *to have become*) *tall*; *geachtet werden* (or *worden seyn*), *to be* (or *to have been*) *esteemed*.

Obs. 3. Respecting the other auxiliaries and combinations used in the English conjugation, we observe: 1.) There is in German no auxiliary corresponding to the English *to do*; the verb *thun*, *to do*, *to make*, being used only as a principal verb*. The English tenses formed by aid of

* The common people in Germany use this verb also as an auxiliary, but without attaching to it any emphasis. It likewise occurs as such in poetry,

the auxiliary *to do*, must therefore be rendered in German by the same tenses of the principal verb; as, *I do not praise*, *ich lobe nicht*, (literally, *I praise not*); *dost thou praise?* *lobest du?* (*praisest thou?*); *does he not praise?* *lobt er nicht?* (*praises he not?*); *I did not praise*, *ich lobte nicht* (*I praised not*); *did they not praise?* *lobten sie nicht?* (*praised they not?*). 2.) The participle present cannot in German be combined with the auxiliary *to be*, to denote progressive action: and such expressions as “*I am waiting*,” “*I was waiting*,” “*I have been waiting*,” &c. must be rendered by *ich warte* (*I wait*), *ich wartete* (*I waited*), *ich habe gewartet* (*I have waited*), &c. But when this participle assumes the character of an adjective, denoting a permanent quality of a substantive, and not an action in time, it may, like other adjectives, be joined with the verb *seyn*, *to be* (which is then a principal, not an auxiliary verb); as, *Sie ist reizend*, *she is charming*; *Dieser Staat war einst blühend*, *this state was once flourishing*.

§ 77. We now subjoin examples of the regular conjugation in all its parts, both simple and compound. The transitive verb *loben*, *to praise*, is commonly selected for this exemplification; but it must be observed, that the active voice is also the conjugation of the intransitive verbs (see § 67); except those denoting a change of place or state, the deviations of which (consisting merely in using the auxiliary *seyn* instead of *haben*) will be given in a separate table, p. 168.—The arrangement of the tenses is according to § 69.

The words “*it is said*,” and “*if*,” added, both in the following and in the preceding tables, to the English translation of the several tenses of the subjunctive, are merely to indicate the leading feature of each tense (see §§ 68 and 78): the whole import of the subjunctive can be detailed only in the Syntax.

—chiefly in comic poems. In prose, however, its auxiliary function has been entirely rejected, instead of being confined to its proper use. The intention of the language, in regard to this auxiliary, was, it would seem, to have distinct terms for the bare attribution expressed by this verb, and the attribute (as expressed by the infinitive), in order to distinguish, if there be occasion, one or the other by emphasis, or transposition,—a practice quite congenial to the Teutonic languages, and in which they have a decided advantage over the Greek and Latin.

Indefinite Action.

INDICATIVE.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Present.

(it is said)

Sing. ich lobe,	<i>I praise.</i>
du lobest,*	<i>thou praisest.</i>
er lobet,*	<i>he praises.</i>
Plur. wir loben,	<i>we praise.</i>
ihr lobet,	<i>you praise.</i>
sie loben,	<i>they praise.</i>

Sing. ich lobe,	<i>I praise.</i>
du lobest,	<i>thou praisest.</i>
er lobe,	<i>he praises.</i>
Plur. wir loben,	<i>we praise.</i>
ihr lobet,	<i>you praise.</i>
sie loben,	<i>they praise.</i>

Imperfect.

(if)

Sing. ich lobte,*	<i>I praised.</i>
du lobtest,	<i>thou praisedst.</i>
er lobte,	<i>he praised.</i>
Plur. wir lobten,	<i>we praised.</i>
ihr lobtet,	<i>you praised.</i>
sie lobten,	<i>they praised.</i>

Sing. ich lobete,	<i>I praised.</i>
du lobetest,	<i>thou praisedst.</i>
er lobete,	<i>he praised.</i>
Plur. wir lobeten,	<i>we praised.</i>
ihr lobetet,	<i>you praised.</i>
sie lobeten,	<i>they praised.</i>

First Future.

(it is said)

Sing. ich werde	} loben,	} <i>I shall</i>	} praise.
du wirst			
er wird			
Plur. wir werden	} loben,	} <i>we shall</i>	} praise.
ihr werdet			
sie werden			

Sing. ich werde	} loben,	} <i>I shall</i>	} praise.
du werdest			
er werde			
Plur. wir werden	} loben,	} <i>we shall</i>	} praise.
ihr werdet			
sie werden			

First Conditional.

Sing. ich würde	} loben,	} <i>I should</i>	} praise.
du würdest			
er würde			
Plur. wir würden	} loben,	} <i>we should</i>	} praise.
ihr würdet			
sie würden			

IMPERATIVE.

Sing. lobe (du)	} praise (thou). ‡	Plur. loben wir,	let us praise.
(lobe Er, or Sie), ‡		lobet (ihr)	
		(loben Sie), ‡	praise (you).

* Or lobst, lobt, lobete.—See § 73, rule 3.

‡ See note †, page 154.

Complete Action.

INDICATIVE.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Perfect.

(it is said)

Sing. ich habe du habst er hat	} gelobt,	} <i>I have thou hast he has</i>	} praised.	Sing. ich habe du habest er habe	} gelobt,	} <i>I have thou hast he has</i>	} praised.
Plur. wir haben ihr habet sie haben	} gelobt,	} <i>we have you have they have</i>	} praised.	Plur. wir haben ihr habet sie haben	} gelobt,	} <i>we have you have they have</i>	} praised.

Pluperfect.

(if)

Sing. ich hatte du hättest er hatte	} gelobt,	} <i>I had thou hadst he had</i>	} praised.	Sing. ich hätte du hättest er hätte	} gelobt,	} <i>I had thou hadst he had</i>	} praised.
Plur. wir hätten ihr hättet sie hätten	} gelobt,	} <i>we had you had they had</i>	} praised.	Plur. wir hätten ihr hättet sie hätten	} gelobt,	} <i>we had you had they had</i>	} praised.

Second Future.

(it is said)

Sing. ich werde du wirst er wird	} gelobt haben,	} <i>I shall thou wilt he will</i>	} have praised.	Sing. ich werde du werdest er werde	} gelobt haben,	} <i>I shall thou wilt he will</i>	} have praised.
Plur. wir werden ihr werdet sie werden	} gelobt haben,	} <i>we shall you will they will</i>	} have praised.	Plur. wir werden ihr werdet sie werden	} gelobt haben,	} <i>we shall you will they will</i>	} have praised.

Second Conditional.

Sing. ich würde du würdest er würde	} gelobt haben,	} <i>I should thou wouldst he would</i>	} have praised.
Plur. wir würden ihr würdet sie würden	} gelobt haben,	} <i>we should you would they would</i>	} have praised.

INFINITIVE.

PARTICIPLES.

loben, to praise.
gelobt haben, to have praised.

Present, lobend, praising.
Past, gelobt *, praised.

* Or gelobet. — See § 73, rule 3.

Indefinite Action.

INDICATIVE.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Present.

(it is said)

Sing. ich werde	} gelobt,	I am	} praised.
du wirst		thou art	
er wird		he is	
Plur. wir werden	}	we are	}
ihr werdet		you are	
sie werden		they are	

Sing. ich werde	} gelobt,	I am	}
du werdest		thou art	
er werde		he is	
Plur. wir werden	}	we are	}
ihr werdet		you are	
sie werden		they are	

Imperfect.

(if)

Sing. ich wurde	} gelobt,	I was	} praised.
du wurdest		thou wast	
er wurde		he was	
Plur. wir wurden	}	we were	}
ihr wurdet		you were	
sie wurden		they were	

Sing. ich würde	} gelobt,	I were	}
du würdest		thou wert	
er würde		he were	
Plur. wir würden	}	we were	}
ihr würdet		you were	
sie würden		they were	

First Future.

(it is said)

Sing. ich werde	} gelobt werden,	I shall	} be praised.
du wirst		thou wilt	
er wird		he will	
Plur. wir werden	}	we shall	}
ihr werdet		you will	
sie werden		they will	

Sing. ich werde	} gelobt werden,	I shall	}
du werdest		thou wilt	
er werde		he will	
Plur. wir werden	}	we shall	}
ihr werdet		you will	
sie werden		they will	

First Conditional.

Sing. ich würde	} gelobt werden,	I should	} be praised.
du würdest		thou wouldst	
er würde		he would	
Plur. wir würden	}	we should	}
ihr würdet		you would	
sie würden		they would	

IMPERATIVE.

Sing. werde (du) gelobt	} be thou	Plur. werden wir gelobt, let us
(werde Er, or Sie, gelobt);		praised.
		werdet (ihr) gelobt, } be ye
		(werden Sie gelobt), } praised.

DICE.

Complete Action.

INDICATIVE.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Perfect.

(it is said)

<p>ich bin du bist er ist</p>	<p>gelobt worden,</p>	<p><i>I have thou hast he has</i></p>	<p>been praised.</p>	<p>Sing. ich seyn du seyest er seyn</p>	<p>gelobt worden,</p>	<p><i>I have thou hast he has</i></p>	<p>been praised.</p>
<p>ir. wir sind ihr seyd sie sind</p>	<p>gelobt worden,</p>	<p><i>we have you have they have</i></p>	<p>been praised.</p>	<p>Plur. wir seyen ihr seyed sie seyen</p>	<p>gelobt worden,</p>	<p><i>we have you have they have</i></p>	<p>been praised.</p>

Pluperfect.

(if)

<p>ich war du warest er war</p>	<p>gelobt worden,</p>	<p><i>I had thou hadst he had</i></p>	<p>been praised.</p>	<p>Sing. ich wäre du wärest er wäre</p>	<p>gelobt worden,</p>	<p><i>I had thou hadst he had</i></p>	<p>been praised.</p>
<p>ir. wir waren ihr wäret sie waren</p>	<p>gelobt worden,</p>	<p><i>we had you had they had</i></p>	<p>been praised.</p>	<p>Plur. wir wären ihr wäret sie wären</p>	<p>gelobt worden,</p>	<p><i>we had you had they had</i></p>	<p>been praised.</p>

Second Future.

(it is said)

<p>ich werde du wirst er wird</p>	<p>gelobt worden seyn,</p>	<p><i>I shall thou wilt he will</i></p>	<p>have been praised.</p>	<p>Sing. ich werde du werdest er werde</p>	<p>gelobt worden seyn,</p>	<p><i>I shall thou wilt he will</i></p>	<p>have been praised.</p>
<p>ir. wir werden ihr werdet sie werden</p>	<p>gelobt worden seyn,</p>	<p><i>we shall you will they will</i></p>	<p>have been praised.</p>	<p>Plur. wir werden ihr werdet sie werden</p>	<p>gelobt worden seyn,</p>	<p><i>we shall you will they will</i></p>	<p>have been praised.</p>

Second Conditional.

<p>Sing. ich würde du würdest er würde</p>	<p>gelobt worden seyn.</p>	<p><i>I should thou wouldst he would</i></p>	<p>have been praised.</p>
<p>Plur. wir würden ihr würdet sie würden</p>	<p>gelobt worden seyn.</p>	<p><i>we should you would they would</i></p>	<p>have been praised.</p>

INFINITIVE.

Present, gelobt werden, to be praised.

Past, gelobt worden seyn, to have been praised.

NEUTER VERBS WITH THE AUXILIARY *seyn*.
(See § 76, rule 2, and § 80.)

Reisen, to travel.

Complete Action.

INDICATIVE.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Perfect.			(it is said)		
Sing. ich bin	} gereiset,	} <i>I have</i>	Sing. ich sey	} gereiset,	} <i>I have</i>
du bist			du seiest		
er ist			er sey		
Plur. wir sind	} gereiset,	} <i>we have</i>	Plur. wir seyen	} gereiset,	} <i>we have</i>
ihr seyd			ihr seyed		
sie sind			sie seyen		

Pluperfect.			(if)		
Sing. ich war	} gereiset,	} <i>I had</i>	Sing. ich wäre	} gereiset,	} <i>I had</i>
du wärest			du wärest		
er war			er wäre		
Plur. wir waren	} gereiset,	} <i>we had</i>	Plur. wir wären	} gereiset,	} <i>we had</i>
ihr wäret			ihr wäret		
sie waren			sie wären		

Second Future.			(it is said)		
Sing. ich werde	} gereiset seyn,	} <i>I shall</i>	Sing. ich werde	} gereiset seyn,	} <i>I shall</i>
du wirst			du werdest		
er wird			er werde		
Plur. wir werden	} gereiset seyn,	} <i>we shall</i>	Plur. wir werden	} gereiset seyn,	} <i>we shall</i>
ihr werdet			ihr werdet		
sie werden			sie werden		

Second Conditional.

Sing. ich würde	} gereiset seyn,	} <i>I should</i>	} <i>have travelled.</i>
du würdest			
er würde			
Plur. wir würden	} gereiset seyn,	} <i>we should</i>	} <i>have travelled.</i>
ihr würdet			
sie würden			

Past Infinitive, *gereiset seyn, to have travelled.*

All the other parts of the conjugation are like *loben*; as, Present, *ich lob*, *du reise*st, &c.; Imperfect, *ich reis*ete, &c.; Future, *ich werde reis*en, &c. &c.

Conjugate the following verbs for practice : *hoffen, to hope* ; *wünschen, to wish* ; *frühstücken, to breakfast* ; *antworten, to answer* ; *sagen, to say* ; *segnen, to bless* ;—for more examples see §§ 73, and 80.

REMARKS ON THE TENSES OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE.

§ 78. The subjunctive having two distinct offices—that of reporting, and that of expressing an imaginary event (§ 68),—it is susceptible of twelve tenses—namely, for each office six, corresponding to the six tenses of the indicative. It has however only eight (§ 69); having no tenses corresponding to the imperfect and pluperfect of the indicative. It has moreover no appropriate future tense for imaginary events. The following table, in which all the tenses of the subjunctive are arranged according to the three divisions of time, will show this more clearly. We give only the 3rd person sing. of each tense, as being generally distinct in form from that of the indicative.

Reporting.

Imaginary.

Present Time.

present tense.

imperfect tense.

1st conditional tense.

er lobe.

er lobete.

er würde loben.

Past Time.

perfect tense.

pluperfect tense.

2nd conditional tense.

er habe gelobt.

er hätte gelobt.

er würde gelobt haben.

Future Time.

1st future tense.

er werde loben.

2nd future tense.

er werde gelobt haben.

As the tenses implying imaginary events (the imperfect, the pluperfect, and the two conditional tenses,) correspond exactly in the two languages (§ 68), it may, in illustration of the preceding table, be shown from the English, 1.) That the imperfect subjunctive, and the first conditional, are employed with reference both to present and to future time, but not with reference to past time. Thus, one may say, "If I were not ill (i. e. now,) we should depart tomorrow;" "I should be glad (i. e. now,) if we departed tomorrow;" but one could not use these verbs in reference to past time (see also § 68, *Obs.* 1.). 2.) That the pluperfect subjunctive answers both to the imperfect and perfect tenses of the indicative, but not to the pluperfect indicative; to which, indeed, there is no corresponding tense in the subjunctive—in other words, complete action in past time cannot be expressed as an imaginary event. Thus

if the sentence "It is well that the king has (now) signed the treaty;—that he signed it on the courier's arrival," is put into the subjunctive, both verbs, "has signed" and "he signed," must be expressed by the so called pluperfect, "had signed;" as, "It would be well if the king *had* (now) signed the treaty; if he *had signed* it when the courier arrived." But the pluperfect of the indicative,—for instance, "The king had already signed the treaty when the courier arrived,"—cannot be rendered subjunctively.

In German, these remarks apply also to the past tense for reporting, viz. the perfect; this tense answers both to the imperfect and perfect of the indicative, but not to its pluperfect. And it must therefore be observed, that, as the English indicative is used for reporting, its imperfect in such cases is translated in German by the perfect subjunctive; but the English pluperfect cannot be rendered by the subjunctive. Thus, "They say the king signed the treaty yesterday, and set out immediately afterwards for the army. Some say he had not yet signed it when the courier departed." The first phrase must be rendered, *Man sagt, der König habe gestern den Vertrag unterzeichnet, und sey gleich darauf zur Armee abgereiset*; but the second phrase cannot be rendered by the pluperfect subjunctive in German. Yet not unfrequently, especially in colloquial language, complete action in past time, both in reporting and in imagining an event, is expressed by adding the participle past of the auxiliary to the perfect and pluperfect of the subjunctive; as, *Man sagt der König habe den Vertrag noch nicht unterzeichnet gehabt, als, &c.*, literally, *they say the king has not yet had signed the treaty when, &c.*; *Wenn er den Vertrag schon unterzeichnet gehabt hätte, &c.*, *if he had had already signed the treaty, &c.*; *Wenn er noch nicht abgereiset gewesen wäre, if he had not (been) yet departed.* Grammarians, however, do not allow this phraseology to be correct*. In the passive voice of verbs admitting the auxiliary *seyn* (§ 79), the pluperfect in question is universally expressed by putting the participle *gewesen* for *worden*; as, *Man sagt der Vertrag sey gestern noch nicht unterzeichnet gewesen* (not *worden*), *it is said the treaty had not yet been signed yesterday*; *Wenn er schon unterzeichnet gewesen wäre, &c.*, *if it had been already signed, &c.*

We may further observe, 1.) That the imperfect subjunctive is very frequently, even in colloquial language, employed in German for the first conditional, and the pluperfect for the second conditional; as, *Ich hätte* (for *würde haben*) *Freunde, wenn ich reich wäre, I should have friends, if I were rich*; *Wir hätten ihn gelobt* (for *würden ihn gelobt haben*), *wenn er es verdient hätte, we should have* (literally *we had*)

* In the indicative, it is true, these combinations are objectionable as useless; but in the subjunctive they are indispensable, and not without good authority, and ought therefore to be adopted in the conjugation as the two pluperfect tenses, for the two offices of this mood.

praised him, if he had deserved it *. 2.) That in reporting, the imperfect is often used for the present; and the pluperfect, for the perfect subjunctive; especially when the present and perfect are not distinct in form from the respective indicative tenses; as, *Sie sagt, wir hätten* (for *haben*) *keine Freunde, she says we have no friends*; *Er behauptet, Sie hätten* (for *haben*) *ihn verrathen, he maintains you have betrayed him*. From these remarks it will be seen, that the imperfect subjunctive may be substituted for the two other subjunctive tenses denoting present time, viz. the present and the first conditional; and the pluperfect, for the two tenses denoting past time, viz. the perfect and the second conditional.

REMARKS ON THE PASSIVE.

§ 79. If in English the present, imperfect, and first future, of the Passive, do not correspond with the same tenses of the Active voice, but with its perfect, pluperfect, and second future,—in other words, if those passive tenses import not indefinite, but complete action, the auxiliary *to be* must be rendered by *seyn*, and not by *werden*; as will appear from the following table:—

<i>Indefinite Action.</i>		<i>Complete Action.</i>	
		Present.	
<i>A good horse is seldom sold,</i> (actively, <i>They seldom sell a good horse,</i>)	<i>Ein gutes Pferd wird selten verkauft.</i>	<i>This horse is sold,</i> (act. <i>They have sold this horse,</i>)	<i>Dieses Pferd ist verkauft.</i>
		Imperfect.	
<i>The horse was sold when I came,</i> (act. <i>They sold the horse when I came,</i>)	<i>Das Pferd wurde verkauft, als ich kam.</i>	<i>The horse was (already) sold when I came,</i> (act. <i>They had sold the horse when I came,</i>)	<i>Das Pferd war (schon) verkauft, als ich kam.</i>
		Future.	
<i>The horse will be sold tomorrow,</i> (act. <i>They will sell the horse tomorrow,</i>)	<i>Das Pferd wird morgen verkauft werden.</i>	<i>The horse will be sold tomorrow,</i> (act. <i>They will have sold the horse tomorrow,</i>)	<i>Das Pferd wird morgen verkauft seyn.</i>

The above rule may be expressed also thus: Whenever a passive tense in which the auxiliary *to have* is not used, would, if actively ex-

* This is also the case sometimes in English; *were* being sometimes used for *would be*, and *had* for *would have*.

pressed, require that auxiliary, the English *to be* must be rendered in German by *seyn*, and not by *werden*.

Obs. 1. From the preceding table it will be seen, that the auxiliary *werden* refers merely to the action, and *seyn* to the effect of it. It is therefore obvious that with such verbs as *loben*, *to praise*; *tadeln*, *to blame*; *fragen*, *to ask*, &c., which leave no result after the action, and of which, consequently, all the tenses of the passive always answer to the respective tenses of the active voice, there can be no occasion for the use of *seyn*; and we cannot therefore properly say, *ich bin gelobt, getadelt, &c.* However, if an action or energy which leaves no effect after its ceasing, is by its nature continuous, so that the action and its effect may be conceived as contemporary, the passive admits indiscriminately either of these auxiliaries. Thus we may indifferently say, *Er ist*, or *er wird, geliebt, geachtet, gefürchtet, &c.*, *he is loved, esteemed, feared, &c.*; *Ich werde*, or *ich bin, den ganzen Tag geplaget, I am plagued all day.*

Obs. 2. Progressive action, which in the English passive is generally expressed by combining the participle present with the auxiliary *to be*, is rendered in German by the usual passive—i. e. by the participle past with *werden*; as, *This house is building (or being built)*, *dieses Haus wird gebaut*; *The letter was just finishing when I came*, *der Brief wurde eben geendigt, als ich kam.* (Compare this with § 76, *Obs. 3.*)

REMARKS ON THE NEUTERS USING THE AUXILIARY *Seyn*.

§ 80. As already observed § 76, rule 2, only such intransitives use the auxiliary *seyn* in the tenses of complete action, as imply a change of the subject from its previous position or state—i. e. that after the action or energy *has ceased*, the subject is in a place, or condition, different from that in which it was *before the beginning* of the action or energy. Thus, “He has arrived,” implies, that he was before absent, and is now here; and “He has recovered,” implies, that he was before ill, and is now well*: and therefore the corresponding verbs in German require the auxiliary *seyn* exclusively—that is, they are conjugated like *reisen* (page 168).—Of this description are, for instance, the following verbs: *landen*, *to land*; *scheitern*, *to be wrecked*; *wandern*, *to wander*; *stolpern*, *to stumble*; *klettern*, *to climb*; *begegnen*, *to meet*; *folgen*, *to follow*; *schlüpfen*, *to slip*; *verwelken*, *to fade*; *erröthen*, *to blush*; *faulen*, *to putrify*; *verwesfen*, *to decay*; *verschmachten*, *to pine away*; *entschlummern*, *to fall asleep*, also *to expire*; &c. &c. A great many irregular verbs (§ 85), too, belong to this class; as, *fahren*, *to drive in a carriage*; *gehen*, *to go*; *fließen*, *to flow*; *kommen*, *to come*; *schwimmen*, *to swim*; *genesen*, *to recover*; *wachsen*, *to grow*; *verschwinden*, *to disappear*;

* This explains, in a simple manner, the use of *seyn* with such verbs:—which are also in English sometimes joined with the auxiliary *to be* (see § 76, *Obs. 1.*)—for, their past participles, as denoting a distinguishing mark of their subject, have the character of adjectives, and are therefore attributed to it by the same verb as common adjectives are to their nouns; and accordingly we say, “He is departed, arrived, grown,” as we say, “He is absent, present, or taller.”

schmelzen, to melt, &c.; and the impersonal verbs, *gelingen, to succeed*; and *geschehen, to happen*. It is, on the other hand, obvious, that such intransitives as *zittern, to tremble*; *schwanken, to totter*; *stampfen, to stamp*; *tanzen, to dance*; *blühen, to bloom*; *glühen, to glow*; *fränkeln, to be sickly*; *schwächen, to pine*; *ruhen, to rest, &c.*, do not belong to this class, as they do not imply the subject being in a different place or condition at the ceasing of the action or energy, from that in which it was before its beginning. However, *bleiben, to remain*; and *seyn, to be* (or rather the obsolete *wesen*, anciently also used often in the sense of *to remain*, from which the participle past *gewesen* is derived), employ the auxiliary *seyn*, though not denoting any change of place or condition; perhaps from their implying that such a change had been expected.

From the preceding remarks it will easily be observed, that intransitives which as simple verbs employ *haben*, may, when compounded with prefixes or separable particles, require, by their new import, the auxiliary *seyn*. Thus, *stehen, to stand*; *wachen, to be awake*; *schlafen, to sleep*; *scheinen, to seem*, use the auxiliary *haben*, as they do not imply any transition: but, *entstehen, to arise*; *erwachen, or aufwachen, to awake*; *einschlafen, to fall asleep*; *erscheinen, to appear, to come forth*, require *seyn*, from their implying a change of state or place.

But very often the same verbs may employ both *haben* and *seyn*, according to the sense in which they are used; as, *Er hat mit der Sache geeilt, he has made haste with the matter*;—*Er ist nach Hause geeilt, he hurried home*; the last example implying locomotion of the subject, the first not. Thus also, *Er hat mit dem Fuße an die Thür gestoßen, he struck against the door with his foot*;—*Das Schiff ist an einen Felsen gestoßen, the ship has struck on a rock*.

We observe on this head, 1.) The intransitives compounded with the particles *fort* and *aus* employ *seyn* when referring to space, and *haben* when referring to time: in the former case, *fort* signifies *forth*, and *aus*, *out*; in the latter, *fort* denotes *continuation*, and *aus*, *ceasing for ever*; as, *Er ist fortgerudert (or fortgehinkt), he has rowed (or limped) away*;—*Er hat fortgerudert (or fortgehinkt), he has continued rowing (or limping)*; *Er ist ausgewandert, he has emigrated*;—*Er hat ausgewandert, he has done wandering, he will wander no more*. 2.) Most neuter verbs denoting locomotion, and which, consequently, employ *seyn*, use *haben* when the motion is conceived as a mere energy or occupation of the subject, without any reference to a change of place; as, *Ich bin oft nach London geritten, I have often ridden to London*;—*Ich habe noch nicht geritten, I have not yet taken my ride*; *Er ist weit gereiset, he has travelled far*;—*Er hat lange gereiset, he has travelled a long time*. However, usage does not always comply with this rule, employing often *seyn* with such verbs even when not referring directly to locomotion. 3.) We need hardly add, that neuter verbs requiring *seyn*

are, when used transitively, or reflectively, joined with the auxiliary *haben*; as, *Die Wunde ist schnell geheilt, the wound has quickly healed*; — *Das Pflaster hat die Wunde geheilt, the plaster has healed the wound*; *Er ist in den Fluß gestürzt, he fell into the river*; — *Er hat sich in den Fluß gestürzt, he threw himself into the river*.

THE POTENTIAL MOOD.

§ 81. This mood does not refer to the action or event itself, but to conditions and circumstances precedent to it, and which are either indispensable to the action, or influential on it. These preliminaries, as it were, are expressed in German by the following seven auxiliary verbs: *können*, *to be able*; *mögen*, *to like, to be possible*; *dürfen*, *to be allowed*; *müssen*, *to be obliged*; *sollen*, *to be ordered*; *wollen*, *to be willing, to wish*; and *lassen*, *to let, to cause*. Their use will be explained in the next section; in this we treat merely of their conjugation. *Lassen* (imperfect *ließ*, participle past *gelassen*;) follows the usual conjugation of irregular verbs (§ 83); the other six are conjugated in the following manner, peculiar to themselves:—

Present tense indicative *.

ich kann,	mag,	darf,	muß,	soll,	will,
du kannst,	magst,	darfst,	mußt,	sollst,	willst,
er kann,	mag,	darf,	muß,	soll,	will,
wir können,	mögen,	dürfen,	müssen,	sollen,	wollen,
ihr könnt,	möget,	dürfet,	müßet,	sollet,	wollet,
sie können.	mögen.	dürfen.	müssen.	sollen.	wollen.

Imperfect indicative.

ich konnte,	mochte,	durfte,	mußte,	sollte,	wollte,
&c.	&c.	&c.	&c.	&c.	&c.

Infinitive.

Pres.	können.	mögen.	dürfen.	müssen.	sollen.	wollen.
Past.	{ gekonnt	gemocht	gedurft	gemußt	gesollt	gewollt.
	{ haben.	haben.	haben.	haben.	haben.	haben.

Participle past.

gekonnt.	gemocht.	gedurft.	gemußt.	gesollt.	gewollt.
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The participle present as well as the imperative are unusual.

* It will be seen that the first and third persons singular of this tense have not the usual inflections *e*, *et* (just in the same manner as the corresponding

Their subjunctive is formed regularly from their infinitive,—except that the imperfect of *mögen* is *möchte*, instead of *mögte*; as, Present, *ich könne, möge, dürfe, müsse, solle, wolle*; *du könneſt, &c.*—Imperfect, *ich könnte, möchte, dürfte, müſſte, ſollte, wollte, &c.* The compound tenses, too, are formed regularly; thus, Perfect, *ich habe gekonnt, gemocht, &c.*; Pluperfect, *ich hatte gekonnt, gemocht, &c.*; Future, *ich werde können, mögen, &c. &c.*

Obs. 1. It will easily be perceived that these auxiliaries (except *dürfen*—see note *, p. 178) are identically the same as the English *can, may, must, shall, will, and let*; they are however not defective in German; having all the tenses and moods of other verbs, and are therefore of a far more extensive use than in English.

Obs. 2. With regard to the conjugation of these auxiliaries, we must add, that the compound tenses formed by the aid of the participle past, particularly the perfect and pluperfect, generally use the infinitive instead of that participle, if attended, as they mostly are, by another infinitive. Thus we say, *Ich habe nicht kommen können, or dürfen* (for *gekonnt, gedurft*), *I have not been able, or allowed, to come*; *Wenn ich es hätte thun wollen* (for *gewollt*), *if I had liked to do it*; *Er würde für einen Meister haben gelten können* (for *gekonnt*), *he might have passed for a master*; though if they are unattended by an infinitive we must say, *Ich habe nicht gekonnt, or gedurft, I have not been able, or allowed*; *Wenn ich gewollt hätte, if I had liked, &c.*

This rule applies also to the verbs, *sehen, to see*; *hören, to hear*; *beißen, to bid*; *helfen, to help*; and sometimes also to *lernen, to learn*, and *lehren, to teach*, all of which use likewise the infinitive instead of

English verbs *he shall, will, may, can*, are without the usual inflection *s*): further, that the whole singular of this tense has, in all the above verbs, except *ſollen*, a different vowel from its plural. In these peculiarities, it may be observed, the above verbs, and the verb *wissen* (see § 85), differ from all others in the language. For these anomalies (which in all the Teutonic languages exist in most of the same verbs), Dr. J. Grimm accounts in a very ingenious and satisfactory manner, by supposing that the present tense of these verbs was originally their imperfect,—in which tense the irregular verbs have in the first and third persons sing. no inflections (§ 83); and many of them had formerly different vowels in the two numbers (see § 86, *Obs. 1.*);—accordingly, *ich kann* originally imported, *I have acquired the ability, or knowledge*; *ich soll, I have been ordered*; *ich weiß, I have learned*: but that, like the Latin perfects *odi* and *memini*, these forms have afterwards assumed the signification of the present tense, and for the import of past time new imperfects, with the aid of the regular or more modern conjugation, were formed. Indeed, in English the same change has again occurred in one of the modern imperfects,—viz. that of the verb *must*, which, though now used as a present tense, was originally the imperfect of the obsolete *mot*.—See note *, page 46.

the participle past, under similar circumstances; as, *Wer hat dich das thun heißen* (for *geheißen*), *who has bidden you do that*; *Ich habe sie kommen hören* (for *gehört*), *I have heard her come*, &c.—It may also be noticed here, that all these verbs, as well as the above auxiliaries, govern other verbs in the infinitive without admitting *zu*, *to*, the usual sign of the infinitive.

§ 82. With regard to the office or import of these verbs, we observe as follows:—In our actions, we depend either only on our own will and power, or on external circumstances. If, therefore, we consider the foregoing verbs in this point of view, we shall find that three of them, in their most common use, refer to a free agent, three to a dependent agent, and one, namely *lassen*, refers not to the agent of the action expressed by the attendant infinitive, but to the person under whose controul that agent is. These verbs—*lassen* excepted—further imply different degrees of influence in promoting the action,—namely, Power, or absence of all hindrance (external or internal); Motive or inducement (as by desire, duty, &c.); and Determination. The whole of these auxiliaries may therefore be arranged in the following manner:—

1. Free Agency. 2. Controlled Agency.		3. Controlling Agency.
Power.		
<i>ich kann, I can, I am able.</i>	<i>ich darf, I am allowed, I may.</i>	<i>ich lasse, I allow; also I cause.</i>
Motive.		
<i>ich mag, I like.</i>	<i>ich soll, I am desired, or ordered; I am (to do).</i>	
Determination.		
<i>ich will, I will.</i>	<i>ich muß, I must, I am obliged.</i>	

In explanation of the preceding table we add the following remarks:—

1.) *Lassen*, in the import *to allow*, is the active verb of *dürfen*, *to be allowed*; and, in the import *to cause*, is the active verb of *müssen*, *to be obliged*. 2.) *Sollen* and *müssen* both denote obligation, or duty, with the difference, that *müssen* implies that the obligation is adequate to

enforce the action, which *solten* generally does not imply (see however *Obs.* 1, page 179). 3.) From the following detail it will be observed, that *können* and *mögen* are used also for denoting liberty, and thus coincide with *dürfen*. But from negative sentences, which generally best show the peculiar import of a verb, it may be seen, that their proper signification is that given in the table; *ich kann nicht* always denotes *I cannot*, and *ich mag nicht*, *I do not like*, but never *I may not*. The import of liberty they assumed by inference; for ability (the present import of *können*, and the former import of *mögen* *), in its full extent, excludes all extrinsic impediment.

The following is a more detailed account of the use and import of these auxiliaries:—

Können, 1.) *To be able, to have the power or capacity*; as, *Er kann es nicht aufheben, he cannot lift it up*; *Ich kann, und will ihm helfen, I can and will help him*. 2.) *May*, as well in the sense of *possibility* as in that of *liberty*; as, *Es kann wahr seyn, it may be true*; *Sie können es behalten, you may keep it*; *Er kann sagen, was er will, he may (or let him) say what he pleases*. 3.) It is employed sometimes—as it once was generally *—in the sense of *knowledge*, but chiefly such as is acquired by dint of practice,—in which case, however, it cannot be considered as an auxiliary †; as, *Er kann viele Sprachen, he knows many languages*; *Können Sie Ihre Lektion? do you know your lesson?*

Mögen, 1.) *To like, to have an inclination*; as, *Ich mag das nicht thun, I do not like to do that*; *Ich möchte ihn sehen, I should like to see him*; *Sie möchte ihn nicht beleidigen, she did not like to offend him*; *Ruhig mag ich euch erscheinen, ruhig gehen sehen, I like (wish) to see you, in coming and going, composed*. Hence it is often used *optatively*, like *may* in English; as, *O, daß es wahr seyn möchte! Oh, that it might be true!* *Das möge (or wolle) der Himmel verhüten! may Heaven prevent that!* Thus also in dependent clauses of which the leading verb denotes a desire, wish, or fear; as, *Er wünschte (or fürchtete), daß es regnen möchte, he wished (or feared) that it might rain*; *Ich sagte ihm, daß er bald kommen möchte, I told him that he should come soon,—which implies a mere wish of the speaker, and is therefore more polite than sollte, which would imply a kind of order*. 2.) Like *können* it often answers to the English *may*, both in the sense of *liberty* and of *possibility*; as, *Sie mögen das kühn thun, you may boldly do that*; *Er mag nun sehen*

* *Können* was formerly more commonly used in the sense of *knowledge*, and *mögen* in that of *power and ability*; whence the derivatives *Macht, might*; *mächtig, mighty*; and *vermögen, to be able*. This import of *mögen* is now nearly obsolete, though in the sense of *liberty* (the inferential import of *ability*, if the above supposition be correct,) it is yet frequently used.

† Some grammarians suppose that *können* in such expressions implies *ability*, and that an infinitive is understood.

wie er allein fortkommt, *he may now shift for himself*; Sie mögen wohl Recht haben, *you may be right*; Er mag krank seyn, *he may be ill*.

Wollen, 1.) *To be willing, to have the will or intention, to offer or want (to do) or be going (to do)*; as, Er will es mir nicht sagen, *he will not tell it me*; Er wollte sie schlagen, aber &c., *he offered to strike her, but &c.*; Sie wollten eben aufstehen, *they were just going to rise*. When applied to inanimate things, it is often rendered by *to threaten*; as, Das Haus will einfallen, *the house threatens to fall in*. 2.) *To pretend*; as, Er will es selbst gesehen haben, *he pretends to have seen it himself*; Sie wollen alles besser wissen, *they pretend to know everything better*.

Dürfen, 1.) *To be permitted, often expressed in English by may; to dare, if equivalent to see, or care for, no moral objection*; as, Er darf keinen Wein trinken, *he is not allowed to drink wine*; Darf ich das thun? *may I do that?* Nein, du darfst nicht, *no, thou must not (art not allowed)*; Wie dürfen Sie das sagen? *how dare you say so?* 2.) *To need *, to have occasion*; as, Er darf sich nicht fürchten, *he has no occasion (he needs not) to be afraid*; Wenn Sie etwas brauchen, so dürfen Sie es nur sagen, *if you want anything, you need only mention it*.

Sollen, 1.) *To be ordered or requested, to be (to do)*. In the present tense it also denotes *shall*, and in the imperfect, *should or ought* (see Obs. 5); as, Sie sollen zu Ihrem Vater kommen, *you are requested to come to your father*; Er sollte bei ihr speisen, aber er wollte nicht, *he was (or she wanted him) to dine with her, but he would not*; Soll ich es thun, oder nicht? *shall I (am I to) do it, or not?* Du sollst nicht stehlen, *thou shalt not steal*; Sie sollten das nicht thun, *you ought (reason bids you) not to do that*. When applied to inanimate objects, it must be rendered by *to be intended*; as, Die Gesetze sollen den Bürger schützen, *the laws are intended to protect the citizen*. In this import it occurs often in questions without being followed by an infinitive, which, properly speaking, is expected in the answer; as, Wozu soll das Geld? *for what purpose is this money intended?* Sometimes it is used optatively, and then often rendered by *may*; as, Du sollst leben, *long life to you*,—literally, *thou art wished to live*; Dafür soll mich der Himmel bewahren! *from that may Heaven preserve me!* 2.) *To be said, people will have it* †; as, Er soll sehr reich seyn, *he is said to be very rich*; Was, er soll das gethan haben! *what, (do they say,) he has done that!* 3.) *To be doomed, decreed (by fate)*;

* This was the original import of dürfen (whence the derivative bedürfen, *to be in want of*); in which sense it answers to the Anglo-Saxon *thurfan* (present *ic thearf*). The verb answering to the English *dare*, Anglo-Saxon *duran*, was in Old German *uran* (present *ic tar*, imperfect *ic torf*), which has become obsolete, and dürfen has partly assumed its import.

† This English phrase, in which a mere report is expressed by words denoting desire, illustrates sufficiently this figurative import of sollen; for what people often maintain, they appear to desire.

as, *Ich soll unglücklich seyn, I am doomed to be unhappy*; Die Zeit seiner Erlösung war noch nicht gekommen, er sollte noch länger leiden, *the time of his delivery had not yet come, he was to suffer still longer.*—The imperfect *sollte* is sometimes used conditionally in the sense *if it were to happen*; as, *Sollte er sterben, so würde ich unglücklich seyn, should he die, I should be unhappy*; Falls es regnen sollte, so &c., *in case it should rain, then &c.* 4.) In the second and third persons it sometimes implies a future event, but only as the effect of the speaker's present determination or feeling;—by which it differs from the simple future—see *Obs. 5.* It is in this sense frequently rendered in English by *shall*; as, *Er soll es bereuen, he shall (I will make him) repent it*; *Es soll geschehen, it shall be done*; *Du sollst sterben, thou shalt die*; *Er soll mir willkommen seyn, he will be (I will make him) welcome*; *Das soll mich wundern, that will surprise me* (implying a present inclination to believe the contrary); *Sie sollen Recht haben, you are right* (i. e. *I allow you to be right, —I will not dispute with you*).

Obs. 1. In its 3rd and 4th imports *sollen* implies an obligation adequate to produce the event; yet it differs from *müssen* by its referring to the cause of the obligation, whilst the latter auxiliary refers to the effect of it. Hence we find it in this import connected with the infinitive of *müssen*; as, *Er soll schon müssen (Lessing), he shall be compelled to do it, —i. e. we will compel him to do it.*

Müssen, to be obliged, mostly expressed in English by *must*; as, *Wir müssen alle einmal sterben, we must all one day die*; *Ich würde es nicht thun, wenn ich nicht müßte, I should not do it, if I were not obliged.*

Lassen imports both *to cause* and *to suffer or allow an action*; also *to let*; as, *Er ließ seine Pferde verkaufen, he caused his horses to be sold*; *Ich ließ mir das Haar schneiden, I had my hair cut —I caused my hair to be cut*; *Er ließ uns thun, was wir wollten, he allowed us to do what we liked*; *Lassen Sie ihn gehen, let him go.* *Lassen* is also used as a principal verb, denoting *to leave, to part with*; as, *Lassen Sie mir das Buch, let me have that book*; *Wo ließen Sie Ihren Bruder? where did you leave your brother?*

Obs. 2. It will be seen from the above examples, that the infinitive governed by *lassen* is used sometimes in a passive signification; and indeed it can often be decided only from the context, in what sense it must be taken. Thus, *Er ließ ihn betrügen,* may signify both *he allowed (or caused) him to cheat,* or *he allowed (or caused) him to be cheated.* However, if it is used reflectively, the infinitive has always a passive import; and, if the nominative be not a person, *sich lassen* is invariably rendered by *can*; as, *Es läßt sich nicht läugnen, it cannot be denied*; *Dagegen läßt sich nichts sagen, nothing can be said against that*; *Die Sache*

läßt sich nun nicht mehr ändern, *the thing (affair) can now no more be changed.*

Obs. 3. The above auxiliaries are often used without an infinitive, if the latter is easily supplied by the mind; as, *Der Mensch kann alles* (supply *thun*), *was er ernstlich will*, *man can do* (or bring about) *anything he is bent upon*; *Ich mag keinen Wein* (supply *trinken*), *I do not like* (to drink) *wine*. This omission of the infinitive is more frequent after adverbs implying motion; as, *Ich muß fort*, *I must [be] off*; *Wo hin wollen Sie?* *whither do you want [to go]?* *Ich kann nicht weiter*, *I can [go] no further*; *Er ließ mich nicht weg*, *he did not allow me [to go] away*.

Obs. 4. The following remarks with regard to the rendering of the English auxiliary *may* into German, will be found useful:—1.) If *may* denotes *ability*—that is, if it is equivalent to *can*—it must be translated by *fönnen* only; as, *I might (could), if I liked*, *ich könnte* (not *möchte*), *wenn ich wollte*; *One may learn this in a week*, *man kann daß in einer Woche lernen*. 2.) If implying *uncertainty*, or *possibility for aught we know*, it may be rendered indifferently by *fönnen* or *mögen*; as, *It may be true*, *es kann* (or *mag*) *wahr seyn*; *He may be mistaken*, *er mag* (or *kann*) *sich irren*; *They may be ill*, *sie können* (or *mögen*) *krank seyn*. In some phrases of this kind, however, *mögen* is more usual—especially when relating to a pronoun or adverb compounded with *ever* (as *whoever*, *whatever*, *whenever*, &c.); as, *Whoever you may be*, *wer Sie auch seyn mögen*; *Whatever you may say*, *was Sie auch sagen mögen*. 3.) It is rendered by *mögen* only, when it implies a wish (for examples see the 1st import of *mögen*, page 177.). 4.) When implying *having reason*, *permission*, or *liberty*, it may be rendered indifferently by *mögen*, *fönnen*, or *dürfen*; as, *You may think yourself happy that &c.*, *Sie mögen—fönnen*, or *dürfen—sich glücklich schätzen, daß &c.*; *He may do what he likes*, *er mag—kann*, or *darf—thun, was er will*. However, as *dürfen* implies *dependence*, and *mögen* and *fönnen* *independence*, in asking leave the former is more generally used; but in granting it, it is more polite to use one of the other two; as, *May I take that?* *darf ich daß nehmen?* *You may take that*, *Sie mögen—or fönnen—daß nehmen*. From the preceding remarks it will appear that *may* can always be rendered by *mögen*, except when denoting ability, in which case it is rendered by *fönnen*; or in asking leave, where it is generally rendered by *dürfen*.

Obs. 5. From what has been said in this section, it will be seen, that if *shall* implies a duty, or request, and *will* volition—in other words, if they are auxiliaries of the potential mood, referring to the present inducement, or cause of the action, and not merely to its future occurrence,—*shall* is rendered by *sollen*, and *will* by *wollen*; but if they are auxiliaries of the future tense, implying merely that the action will happen,

without any reference to the present motive of it, they must be rendered by *werden*; as, *They shall suffer for it* (implying the present determination of the speaker), *sie sollen dafür leiden*; *We shall suffer for it*, *wir werden dafür leiden*; *He will* (i. e. now) *not do it, but he will* (i. e. one day) *repent it*, *er will es nicht thun, aber er wird es bereuen*; *I will help you*, *ich will Ihnen helfen*; *I shall help you*, *ich werde Ihnen helfen*; *Shall I* (i. e. *do you wish me to*) *help you?* *soll ich Ihnen helfen?* The unlucky mistake of the man who fell into the water, “*I will be drowned, nobody shall save me,*” must, to convey the same idea, be rendered by, *Ich will ertrinken, niemand soll mich retten*. The transposition of these auxiliaries, namely, *Ich soll ertrinken, niemand will mich retten*, would still leave them in the potential mood, and denote, *I am doomed to be drowned, nobody wishes (or offers) to save me*. The mere future tense must be, *Ich werde ertrinken, niemand wird mich retten*.

The same remarks apply to the imperfect of these auxiliaries (*should and would*)—namely, as an auxiliary of the potential mood, *should* is rendered by *sollte*, and *would* by *wollte* (or *möchte*); but if they are purely conditional, denoting the certain consequence of hypothetical premises, or if they import mere futurity to a leading verb, they are rendered by *würde*; as, *You should repent it* (i. e. *you ought to repent it*; or also, *I would make you repent it*), *Sie sollten es bereuen*;—*You would repent it, if you did it*, *Sie würden es bereuen, wenn Sie es thäten*; *He would soon recover, if he would but live temperately*, *er würde bald genesen, wenn er nur mäßig leben wollte*; *I would not do it, even if I could*, *ich wollte (or möchte) es nicht thun, selbst wenn ich könnte*; *I knew that it would rain, ich wusste, daß es regnen würde*.

Obs. 6. When the English infinitive is attended by an interrogative pronoun or adverb, we must add in German the present, or imperfect, tense of *sollen*, *müssen*, or *können*, to the infinitive; as, *Tell me which to choose*, *sagen Sie mir, welches ich wählen soll*; *I do not know how to help him*, *ich weiß nicht, wie ich ihm helfen kann*; *He told her what to do*, *er sagte ihr, was sie thun mußte (or sollte)*.

IRREGULAR CONJUGATION.

§ 83. The irregular verbs deviate from the regular conjugation, chiefly in the imperfect and participle past; but several also in the singular of the present tense indicative and of the imperative. The whole of them, amounting to about 190, will be given in an alphabetical list (§ 85), with the irregular forms of each verb; previously, however, we have to state the following general rules concerning the irregular conjugation:—

1. The present is formed regularly from the infinitive. In the subjunctive, this rule is without any exception; in the indicative, however, we have to except, besides the auxiliaries (§§ 75 and 81), and *wissen* (see List), most irregular verbs having *a* or *e* for their radical vowel (i.e. the vowel of the penultimate syllable of the infinitive), *a* being changed into *ä* in the second and third persons singular, and *e* into *i* or *ie* in those persons; as, *graben*, to dig—*du gräbst*, *er gräbt*; *helfen*, to help—*du hilfst*, *er hilft*; *messen*, to measure—*du missest*, *er misst* (i. e. *misst*—see § 24); *stehlen*, to steal—*du stiehst*, *er stiehlt*.

However, the verbs *erschallen*, *schaffen*, *bewegen*, *genesen*, *heben*, *melken*, *pflegen*, *scheren*, *weben*, as well as all those that have in the first person of the imperfect a consonant more than in the root—that is, all the verbs mentioned in the second remark of *Obs.* 2., and *gehen* and *stehen*—follow the general rule, leaving the radical vowel unchanged in the second and third persons.

Obs. 1. The verbs which have *ie* for their radical vowel, changed it formerly into *eu* in the above cases, as well as in the second pers. sing. of the imperative; thus, *kiegen*, to bend—*du beugst*, *er beugt*; imperative, *beug* (bend thou); *friechen*, to creep—*du freuchst*, &c.; which forms, though still occurring in poetry, are obsolete, and we say now, *du kiegst*, *friechst*, &c.

2. The imperfect indicative is formed, not as in the regular verbs by the inflection *et*, but by changing the radical vowel into *a*, *i*, *ie*, *o*, or *u*. The personal inflections are the same as in the regular verbs (§ 70), except that *e* is omitted in the first and third persons singular—that is, the imperfect given of each verb in the List (§ 85) is used in these persons without any addition. This, however, does not apply to the imperfect subjunctive, which takes this *e* as in the regular verbs.—In other respects this imperfect differs from that of the indicative merely by the vowel inflection, that is, *a*, *o*, *u* of the imperfect indicative become *ä*, *ö*, *ü*; whilst *i* and *ie* remain unaltered; as, *graben*, to dig; *friechen*, to creep—imperf. ind. *ich grub*, *ich froch* (not *grabte*, *friechte*)—imperf. subj. *ich grübe*, *fröche*.—See also the table of conjugation in the next page.

3. The participle past takes the inflection *en* instead of

et; in many verbs the radical vowel is retained; but, more generally, it is changed into *i*, *ie*, *o*, or *u*; as, *gegraben*, *dug*; *gefrohen*, *crept*.—See the table below. Exceptions to this and the preceding rules will be found in the next Observation.

The participle present is always regular.

4. The imperative is regular, except that the second pers. sing. changes the radical vowel into *i* or *ie*, whenever the same change takes place in the present, according to the first rule; in which case the *e* of inflection is omitted. The radical *a*, however, remains always unaltered; as, *ließ*, *read (thou)*; *grabe*, *dig (thou)*.

5. The compound tenses, (and consequently also the whole of the passive,) are always formed regularly; that is, the infinitive, and participle past, of an irregular verb, are compounded with the several auxiliaries according to the rules given at § 76.

From the preceding rules it will be seen, that, generally, we need only to know the infinitive, imperfect, and participle past, of an irregular verb, in order to form its whole conjugation. Thus the verbs,

schreiben, *to write*, imp. *schrieb*, part. past *geschrieben*,

lesen, *to read*, imp. *laß*, part. past *gelesen*,

are conjugated in the following manner:—

INDICATIVE.		SUBJUNCTIVE.	
		Present.	
Sing.	<i>ich schreibe</i> , <i>lese</i> .	Sing.	<i>ich schreibe</i> , <i>lese</i> .
	<i>du schreibest</i> , <i>liesest</i> .		<i>du schreibest</i> , <i>liesest</i> .
	<i>er schreibt</i> , <i>lies't</i> .		<i>er schreibe</i> , <i>lese</i> .
Plur.	<i>wir schreiben</i> , <i>lesen</i> .	Plur.	<i>wir schreiben</i> , <i>lesen</i> .
	<i>ihr schreibt</i> , <i>leset</i> .		<i>ihr schreibt</i> , <i>leset</i> .
	<i>sie schreiben</i> , <i>lesen</i> .		<i>sie schreiben</i> , <i>lesen</i> .
		Imperfect.	
Sing.	<i>ich schrieb</i> , <i>laß</i> .	Sing.	<i>ich schriebe</i> , <i>läse</i> .
	<i>du schriebst</i> , <i>läsest</i> .		<i>du schriebst</i> , <i>läsest</i> .
	<i>er schrieb</i> , <i>laß</i> .		<i>er schriebe</i> , <i>läse</i> .
Plur.	<i>wir schrieben</i> , <i>lasen</i> !	Plur.	<i>wir schrieben</i> , <i>läsen</i> .
	<i>ihr schriebet</i> , <i>laset</i> .		<i>ihr schriebet</i> , <i>läset</i> .
	<i>sie schrieben</i> , <i>lasen</i> .		<i>sie schrieben</i> , <i>läsen</i> .

IMPERATIVE.

Sing. 2nd pers. schreibe, ließ, (du)	Plur. 1. schreiben, lesen, wir,
(schreibe, lese, Er or Sie.)	2. schreibt, leset, (ibr),
	(schreiben, lesen, Sie).

Participle present, schreibend, lesend.

In the compound tenses, as already stated, there is no departure from the regular conjugation; as, future *ich werde schreiben* or *lesen*; *du wirst schreiben* or *lesen*;—2nd future, *ich werde geschrieben* or *gelesen haben*; conditional, *ich würde schreiben* or *lesen*; perfect, *ich habe geschrieben* or *gelesen*, &c. Thus also with irregular verbs requiring the auxiliary *seyn* (§ 80); as, *ich bin gelaufen* or *gesprungen*, &c., *I have run, jumped*, &c.; *ich war gelaufen, gesprungen*, &c., *I had run, jumped*, &c.

Obs. 2. Besides the auxiliary verbs (§§ 75, 81), there are several other irregular verbs deviating, more or less, from the preceding general rules. Referring the learner to the List (§ 85) for the particulars, we will here briefly notice them in the following remarks:—

1. The verbs *kennen*, *nennen*, *rennen*, *brennen*, *senden*, *wenden*, *bringen*, and *denken*, though changing in their imperfect and participle past their radical vowel like the irregular verbs, add, nevertheless, the inflection *t*, and take in the imperfect the personal inflection *e*, like the regular verbs. The two last change, moreover, their final consonants into *ch*. We may further notice here, that the first six of the verbs just mentioned form their imperfect subj. regularly—*kennete*, *rennete*, &c.—not *kännte*, *rännte*, &c.

2. With most verbs having *a* in the imperfect ind. and *o* in the participle past, the imperfect subj., which ought to have *ä* for its vowel (see rule 2, § 83), has *ö* or *ü*; being derived from a form of the imperfect indic. now obsolete.—See § 86, *Obs. 1.* Modern writers, however, use in most of these verbs, if not in all, the analogous form in *ä* indifferently with the anomalous form in *ö* or *ü*. Thus, for instance, we find equal authority for the forms, *schwämme* and *schwömmе*, *hülfe* and *hüllfe*, *bürge* and *bürgе*, *stünde* and *stündе*, as imperfects subj. of the verbs *schwimmen*, *helfen*, *bergen*, and *stehen*. In the Alphabetical List, only the anomalous forms are noticed with these verbs.

3. The verbs *hauen*, *essen*, *sigen*, *thun*, *wissen*, *ziehen*, *geben*, and *stehen*, present likewise some anomalies in their conjugation, for which see the List, § 85. As to *gehen* and *stehen*, see also p. 47.

4. In verbs terminating radically in *t*, the 3rd person sing. of the present tense ind. drops its inflection *et*, if the radical vowel is therein changed, or inflected (see rule 1, § 83). Thus we say in the present tense ind. of *gelten* and *halten*, *er gilt*, *er hält*, instead of *giltet*, *hätet*.

Obs. 3. The quantity (§§ 13 and 14) of the radical vowel is, generally,

retained in the changes which the verb undergoes in its conjugation. It must, however, be observed:—1.) The radical *ie* and *ei* (see the 3rd and 4th classes, §. 86) before an aspirate (*ch*, *ff*, *f*), and before *t* and *d*, assume a short quantity in the imperfect and participle past; as, *gießen*, *göß*, *gegossen*; *sieden*, *sott*, *gesotten* (see note *, p. 38); *schleichen*, *schlich*, *geschlichen*; *greifen*, *griff*, *gegriffen*; *reiten*, *ritt*, *geritten*; *leiden*, *litt*, *gelitten*. Except *bieten*, *heißen*, *meiden*, and *scheiden*, which retain their long vowel quantity through the whole conjugation. 2.) On the other hand, a short radical vowel retains its quantity in the imperfect, only when followed by two different consonants which are both heard in the pronunciation—as, *finden*, *helfen*, *sterben*, &c.; or by a double liquid (*l*, *m*, *n*, *r*)—as, *rinnen*, *schallen*, *schwimmen*, &c.: in all other cases, with the sole exception of *erlöschen*, the short vowel becomes long in the imperfect; as, *brechen*, *essen*, *lassen*, *waschen*, *schaffen*, *treffen*, *erschrecken*, *hassen*, *bitten*—imperf. *bräch*, *äß*, *ließ*, *wüsch*, *schuf*, *traf*, *erschraf*, *hat*, *bat*. In the verbs *fommen*, *fallen*, and *halten*, also, the vowel becomes long in the imperfect. 3.) The *e* of *treten* and *nehmen* assumes a short quantity in the change it undergoes in the present tense ind. and in the imperative—*du trittst*, *nimmst*, &c.; imperat. *tritt*, *nimm*.

From the preceding examples it will be seen, that the single consonant of the infinitive following the radical vowel is doubled in those parts where the latter becomes short (*reiten*, *greifen*—*ritt*, *griff*, &c.), and that the double consonants become single in the contrary case (*bitten*, *treffen*—*bat*, *traf*), in conformity with the rules given at §§ 23 and 24. It will therefore be observed, that when the imperfect ends in *ieß* or *oß*, in which the vowel is always short, the final *ß* stands for *ff* (see § 1, Obs. 2. and § 24), and must be written so when followed by a vowel of inflection; and that when the imperfect ends in *aß*, in which the vowel is always long, the final *ß* is a single consonant, and remains therefore unchanged when followed by a vowel of inflection; as, *ich goß*, *du goßest*, *wir goßen*, subj. *ich gösse*; *ich riß*, *du risset*, &c.;—*ich aß*, *du aßest*, *wir aßen*, subj. *ich äße*, &c. In imperfections ending in *ieß*, *ß* remains, of course, unchanged, it being always of long quantity.

VERBS DERIVED FROM IRREGULAR PRIMITIVES.

§ 84. Verbs derived from others by means of prefixes or particles,—*be*, *emp*, *ent*, *er*, *ge*, *ver*, *zer*, *miß*, *hinter*, *voll*, &c.—drop the augment *ge* *, according to rule (§ 74); but in

* The learner will observe, that by this omission, such irregular past participles as do not change the radical vowel, but merely take the inflection *en*, become in form like their infinitives; thus, *erschlagen* may signify *to kill*, or *killed*; *vergeben*, *to forgive*, or *forgiven*; which must be ascertained from the context.

other respects they are conjugated like their primitives. Thus, *bestehen*, to consist; *entstehen*, to arise; *gestehen*, to confess; *verstehen*, to understand; *überstehen*, to overcome; *widerstehen*, to withstand, &c., are all conjugated like the irregular verb *stehen*, to stand (imperf. *stand*, part. past *gestanden*); viz. imperf. *bestand*, *entstand*, *gestand*, &c.; part. past *bestanden*, *entstanden*, *gestanden*, &c.—in the same manner as the English verbs *withstand*, *bespeak*, *forego*, *undergo*, are conjugated like their respective primitives, *stand*, *speak*, and *go*. In the Alphabetical List therefore (§ 85), only those few verbs with prefixes are given, of which the primitives either are not in use, or have assumed the regular conjugation; all the others are omitted, their conjugation being easily ascertained from that of their primitives.

That the irregular verbs compounded with separable particles (*abgehen*, to go off; *ausgehen*, to go out, &c.—see the Compound Verbs, § 89) retain their irregular conjugation, requires hardly to be mentioned, as in a strict sense they cannot be called compounds.

Obs. 1. The few other compounds, *beauftragen*, to commission; *berathschlagen*, to consult, deliberate; *bewillkommen*, to welcome; *handhaben*, to manage, execute; *heirathen*, to marry; *herbergen*, to harbour; *veranlassen*, to cause; *willfahren*, to comply with, have indeed the regular conjugation; but these verbs are derived from the compounded substantives, *Auftrag*, *Rathschlag*, &c., and not from the verbs *tragen*, *schlagen*, &c.

Obs. 2. Derivative verbs formed by annexes (§ 12), or by changing the radical vowel of their primitives, have always the regular conjugation. Thus, *befehligen*, to command (troops); *empfindeln*, to be sentimental; *steigern*, to raise; *säugen*, to suckle; *fällen*, to fell, are conjugated regularly, and not like their primitives, *befehlen*, *empfinden*, *steigen*, *saugen*, *fallen*.

The two last examples belong to a class of verbs which require some explanation in this place, as the learner is apt to confound them with their primitives. They may properly be called *Causative Verbs*, since they imply, to cause an object to do the action denoted by their primitives*.

* It is by this, and not merely by their being transitives, that they are always distinguished from their primitives; some of these—as *trüben*, *säugen*, &c.—being transitives too.

Thus, *to fell, to lay, to raise*, denote *to make* (a person or thing) *fall, lie, rise*.—Such verbs are mostly formed in German, just as in the preceding English examples, merely by changing the radical vowel of their primitives, and have therefore, according to the last rule, always the regular conjugation. Thus, *säugen, to suckle*; *hängen* *, *to hang* (transitively); *setzen, to set*; *senken, to sink* (transitively); *schwemmen, to float* (transitively); *springen, to cause to spring or burst*; *tränken, to water* (i. e. to give to drink); *ertränken* †, *to drown* (transitively), are conjugated regularly, though derived from the irregular verbs, *saugen, to suck*; *hängen* *, *to hang* (intransitively); *sitzen, to sit*; *sinken, to sink* (intransitively); *schwimmen, to swim*; *springen, to spring or to burst* (intransitively); *trinken, to drink*; *ertrinken* †, *to drown* (intransitively). Some irregular verbs are used in the same form and conjugation both in a neuter and a causative sense; as, *heißen, to call, or be called*; *reißen, to tear*; *sieden, to boil*; *biegen, to bend*, &c. &c.: a few of them, however, are irregular only as neuter verbs; but in the causative import they assume the regular conjugation,—which will be noticed in the proper places in the Alphabetical List.

ALPHABETICAL LIST OF THE IRREGULAR VERBS.

§ 85. Explanations for using this list:—

If the present tense is left unnoticed, the whole of this tense (both indicative and subjunctive), and of the imperative, is formed regularly from the infinitive. But if the 2nd person sing. of the present indic. is irregular, and therefore given in the List, the 3rd pers. sing. of the same tense is formed from it, (unless separately mentioned,) by changing the inflection (*st* or *est*) into *t*—seldom into *et*; and if the radical vowel of this second person be *i* or *ie*, or *eu*, the 2nd pers. sing. of the imperative is likewise formed from it, by omitting the inflection. See the examples in § 83, rules 1 and 4, and *Obs.* 1.

The imperfect subjunctive, being formed from the imperf. indic. according to a fixed rule (§ 83), is not noticed, except in those verbs which deviate from this rule. See the 2nd remark in § 83, *Obs.* 2, concerning

* *Hängen* is often used intransitively, and is then conjugated irregularly (*hing, gehangen*). But, analogously to *fallen* and *fällen*, it seems more correct to use in the intransitive import the form *hängen*, and to confine *hängen* to the transitive signification, conjugating it always regularly. This distinction, of course, applies also to the compounded verbs; and we ought to say, *abhängen* (not *abhängen*), *to depend*; *anhängen, to adhere to*;—but, *anhängen, to fix to*; *aufhängen, to hang up*.

† The difference between the neuter and the transitive verb may be forcibly illustrated by a passage occurring at the end of Schiller's tragedy, *Die Verschwörung des Fiesco zu Genua*; where, on the conspirators, who had just drowned Fiesco, being asked *where he was*, one of them answers, *Ertrunken, drowned*; and on further inquiry, adds, *Ertränkt, wenn das hübscher lautet, [He has been] drowned, if that sounds more pretty*.

the use of the anomalous form of the imperfect subj. The infinitive and past participle are used in the compound tenses exactly as in the regular conjugation.—See page 184.

The forms in brackets are obsolete, and found only in poetry.—The letter R. denotes that that part has also the *regular* form, and m. R. that it is *mostly regular*.—S. denotes *subjunctive mood*; refl., *reflective verb*; and impers., *impersonal verb*.—When a part has two forms, the double form extends also to the parts derived from it. Thus, the imperfect of *bräsen* being *bräsch* or *brösch*, the imperf. subj. is accordingly *bräschē* or *bröschē*. The 2nd person sing. present tense of *gebären* is marked *gebierst* R.; accordingly, the 3rd person of this tense is *er gebiert*, or *gebärt*; and 2nd person sing. of the imperative, *gebier*, or *gebäre*.

<i>Infinitive.</i>	<i>Pres. Indic. Sing.</i>	<i>Imperf. Ind.</i>	<i>Part. past.</i>
bäcken, to bake,	2. bäckst, R.	back, m. R.	gebacken.
befehlen*, to command,	2. befehlst,	befahl; S. be-	befohlen.
befleissen, (refl.) to apply (one-		heiß, [föble,	beflissen.
beginnen, to begin, [self],		begann; S. be-	begonnen.
beißen, to bite,		biß, [könne,	gebißen.
bergen, to save, to conceal,	2. birgst,	berg; S. bürge,	geborgen.
bersten, to burst,	2. birstest,	barst or berst,	geborsten.
	3. birstet or birst, R.		
bewegen, to induce †,		beweg,	bewogen.
biegen, to bend,		bog,	gebogen.
bieten, to bid,	[2. beutst,]	bot,	geboten.
binden, to bind,		band,	gebunden.
bitten, to beg,		bat,	gebeten.
blasen, to blow,	2. bläsest,	blies,	geblasen.
bleiben, to remain,		blieb,	geblieben.
braten, to roast,	2. brätst, s. brät, m. R.	friet, m. R.	gebraten.
brechen, to break,	2. brichst.	brach,	gebrochen.
brennen, to burn,		brannte; S. R.	gebrannt.
bringen, to bring,		brachte,	gebracht.
däuchten ‡, (impers.) to seem,	es dünkt,	däuchte,	gedäucht.
denken, to think,		dachte,	gedacht.

* *Fehlen*, to fail, and *verfehlen*, to miss, are verbs of a different origin, and regular.

† If signifying to move, or to touch, it is regular.

‡ *Dünken*, which has the same import, is, according to Adelung, a distinct verb, and regular. Dr. Grimm, however, considers *dünken* as the infinitive of the above verb, and conjugates it analogously to *denken*; namely, present *es dünkt*, imperf. *es dünkte*, part. past *gedäucht*. This opinion seems supported by the circumstance, that there is no other example of an imperfect losing its inflection *et* without any change in the radical letters. We have however preferred Adelung's conjugation, as agreeing more with usage. *Däuchten* is used also regularly, though very rarely.

<i>Infinitive.</i>	<i>Pres. Indic. Sing.</i>	<i>Imperf. Ind.</i>	<i>Part. past.</i>
dingen, to bargain,		dung, R.	gedungen *.
drischen, to thrash,	2. drischest,	draschordrosch,	gedroschen.
dringen, to urge,		drang,	gedrungen.
dürfen to be allowed. See § 81.			
empfehlen, to recommend.	Like befehlen.		
erbleichen†, to grow pale,		erblich,	erblichen.
ertüren‡, to choose,		erfor,	erforen.
erlösch §, to go out (of fire),	2. ertischest,	erlosch,	erloschen.
erschallen , to resound,		erscholl,	erschollen.
erschrecken ¶, to be frightened,	2. erschrickst,	erschrat,	erschrocken.
essen, to eat.	2. issest,	aß,	gegessen.
fahren, to drive,	2. fährst,	fubr,	gefahren.
fallen, to fall,	2. fällst,	fiel,	gefallen.
fallen **, to fold,		R.	gefalten, R.
fangen, to catch,	2. fängst,	fang or fieng,	gefangen.
fechten, to fight,	2. fichtst, 3. s. ficht,	focht,	gefochten.
finden, to find,		fanb,	gefunden.
flechten, to plait,	2. flichst, 3. s. flicht,	flocht,	geflochten.
fliegen, to fly,	[2. fleugst,]	flog,	geflogen.
fliehen, to flee,	[2. fleuchst,]	flob,	geflohen.
fließen, to flow,	[2. fleußest,]	floß,	geflossen.
fragen, to ask, [beasts),		frug, m. R.	R.
freissen, to eat (applied to	2. frissest,	frag,	gefressen.
frieren, to freeze,		fror,	gefroren.
gähren, to ferment,		gobr,	gegobren.
gebären, to bring forth,	2. gebierst, R.	getar,	geboren.
geben, to give,	2. gibst or giebst,	gab,	gegeben.
gelden, to prosper,		gedieb,	gedieben.
gehen, to go, to walk,		ging or gieng,	gegangen.
gelingen, to succeed (impers.),		gelang,	gelungen.
gelten, to be worth, [ness,	2. giltst, 3. gilt,	galt; S. gölte,	gegolten.
genesen, to recover from ill-		genas,	genesen.

* The adjective *bedingt*, *qualified*, *conditional*, must not be mistaken for the participle past of *bedingen*, which is *bedungen*.

† The primitive *bleichen*, to *bleach*, is regular.

‡ This verb is nearly obsolete, with the exception of the participle past. Another form of this verb is *ertiesen*, which is regular according to Adelung, but which Dr. Grimm considers as the infinitive of the above verb, conjugating it, *ertiesen*, *erfor*, *erforen*. See Note (*), p. 197.

§ The verbs *löschen* and *auslöschen*, to *extinguish*, are regular: *auslöschen* is sometimes, though rarely, used intransitively, and is then conjugated like *ertöschen*;—*Lisch aus mein Licht*, *Go out my light*—i. e. *life*, (Bürger.)

|| *Schallen*, to *sound*, is regular, except sometimes in poetry.

¶ When importing to *frighten*, it is regular.

** *Entfalten*, to *unfold*, is entirely regular.

<i>Infinitive.</i>	<i>Pres. Indic. Sing.</i>	<i>Imperf. Ind.</i>	<i>Part. past.</i>
genießen, to enjoy,	[2. geneußest,]	genoss,	genossen.
geschehen, to happen (impers.),	es geschieht,	geschah,	geschehen.
gewinnen, to win,		gewann; S. ge-	gewonnen.
gießen, to pour,	[2. geußest,]	goß, [wönne,	gegossen.
gleich, to resemble,		glich,	geglichen.
gleiten *, to glide,		glitt,	geglitten.
glimmen, to glimmer,		glomm, R.	geglommen.
graben, to dig,	2. gräbst,	grub,	gegraben.
greifen, to seize,		griff,	gegriffen.
haben, to have. See § 75.			
halten, to hold,	2. hältst, 3. hält,	hielt,	gehalten.
hängen †, to hang,	2. hängst,	hing or hieng,	gehangen.
hauen, to hew,		hieb,	gehauen.
heben, to heave, [called,		bob [hub],	gehoben.
heißen, to bid, to call, to be		ieß,	geheißen.
helfen, to help,	2. hilfst,	half; S. hülfe,	geholfen.
helfen, to chide,		tiff,	getiffen.
kennen, to know, to be ac-		kannte; S. R.	gekannt.
quainted with,			
klimmen, to climb,		klohm,	geklimmen.
klingen, to sound,		klang,	geklingen.
kneifen, to pinch,		kniff, R.	gekniffen, R.
kommen, to come,	kömmst, R.	kam,	gekommen.
können, to be able. See § 81.			
kriechen, to creep,	[2. kreichst,]	kroch,	gekrochen.
laden, to load,	2. lädst, m. R.	lud,	geladen.
lassen, to let, to leave,	2. lässest,	ließ,	gelassen.
laufen, to run,	2. läufst, m. R.	lief,	gelaufen.
leiden ‡, to suffer,		litt,	gelitten.
leihen, to lend,		lieh,	geliehen.
lesen, to read,	2. liest,	las,	gelesen.
liegen, to lie down,		lag,	gelegen.
lügen, to tell a lie,	[2. leugst,]	log,	gelogen.
mahlen §, to grind,		R.	gemahlen.
meiden, to shun,		mied,	gemieden.
melken, to milk,		molt, R.	gemolken, R.
meß, to measure,	2. mißt,	maß,	gemessen.
mißlingen, to fail,		mißlang,	mißlungen.
mögen. See § 81.			

* Begleiten, to accompany, is not derived from the above verb, and is regular.

† This verb is used only intransitively. See § 84, Obs. 2.

‡ Verleiden, to make averse to, is regular.

§ Malen or mahlen, to paint, is throughout regular.

<i>Infinitive.</i>	<i>Pres. Indic. Sing.</i>	<i>Imperf. Ind.</i>	<i>Part. past.</i>
müssen, to be obliged. See § 81.			
nehmen, to take,	2. nimmst,	nahm,	genommen.
nennen, to name,		nannte, R; S.R.	genannt, R.
pfeifen, to whistle, [nister,		pfiff,	gepfiffen.
pflegen*, to carry on, admi-		pflog,	gepflogen.
preisen, to praise, [fluids),		pries,	gepriesen.
quellen, to spring forth (of	2. quillst,	quoll,	gequollen.
rächen, to avenge,		R.	gerochen, R.
rathen, to advise,	2. rätst, 3. rät,	rieth,	gerathen.
reiben, to rub,		rieb,	gerieben.
reißen, to tear,		riß,	gerissen.
reiten †, to ride,		ritt,	geritten.
rennen, to run,		rannte, R; S.R.	gerannt, R.
riechen, to smell,		roch,	gerochen.
ringen ‡, to wrestle,		rang,	gerungen.
fließen, to flow,		rann; S.rönne,	geronnen.
rufen, to call,		rief,	gerufen.
sagen, to salt,		R.	gesalzen.
saufen, to drink (of brutes),	2. säufest, m. R.	soff,	gesoffen.
saugen, to suck,		sog,	gesogen.
schaffen §, to create,		schuf,	geschaffen.
scheiden , to separate,		schied,	geschieden.
schienen, to shine,		schien, [te,	geschienen.
schelten, to scold,	2. schiltst, 3. schilt,	schalt; S. schöl-	gescholten.
scheren ¶, to shear,		schor,	geschoren.
schieben, to shove,		schob,	geschoben.
schießen, to shoot,		schoß,	geschossen.
schinden, to flay,		schund, R.	geschunden.
schlafen, to sleep,	2. schläfst,	schief,	geschlafen.
schlagen, to beat,	2. schlägst,	schlug,	geschlagen.
schleichen, to sneak,		schlich,	geschlichen.
schleifen **, to grind,		schliff,	geschliffen.
schleißen, to split,		schliß,	geschliffen.

* When signifying to be in the habit, or to nurse, it is regular. *Verpflegen*, to sustain, *erzürnen*, is always regular.

† Its derivative *bereiten*, to break in (a horse), which, of course, has the same conjugation, must not be confounded with *bereiten*, to prepare, which is not derived from *bereiten*, and is regular.

‡ *Umringen* to surround, is not derived from the above verb, and is regular.

§ So also *erschaffen*, to create; but *schaffen*, to work, to procure, and all its derivatives, *erschaffen*, *anschaffen*, &c. are regular.

¶ When importing to analyse (in chemistry), it is regular.

¶ *Bescheren*, to give, to allot, is regular.

** If denoting to drag, to demolish, it is regular.

<i>Infinitive.</i>	<i>Pres. Indic. Sing.</i>	<i>Imperf. Ind.</i>	<i>Part. past.</i>
schließen, to lock,	[2. schleußeſt,]	schloß,	geschlossen.
schlingen, to sling,		schlang,	geschlungen.
schmalzen, to butter,		R.	geschmalzen.
schmeißen, to fling,		schmiß,	geschmissen.
schmelzen *, to melt,	2. schmilzeſt,	schmolz,	geschmolzen.
schnauben, to snort,		schnob, m. R.	geschnoben.
schneiden, to cut,		schnitt,	geschnitten.
schrauben, to screw,		schrob, m. R.	geschroben.
schreiben, to write,		schrieb,	geschrieben.
schreien, to cry,		schrie,	geschrieben †.
schreiten, to stride,		schrift,	geschritten.
schroten, to rough-grind,		R.	geschroten.
schwären, to fester,		schwor,	geschworen.
schweigen, to be silent,		schwieg,	geschwiegen.
schwellen, to swell ‡,	2. schwillſt,	schwoll,	geschwollen.
schwimmen, to swim,		schwamm ;	geschwommen.
		S. schwämme,	
schwinden, to grow less,		schwand,	geschwunden.
schwingen, to swing,		schwang,	geschwungen.
schwören, to swear,		schwor or	geschworen.
sehen, to see,	2. sieheſt,	sah, [schwur,	gesehen.
senden, to send,		sandte, R; S. R.	gesandt, R.
seyn, to be. See § 75.			
sieden, to boil,		sott,	gefotten.
singen, to sing,		sang,	gesungen.
sinken, to sink,		sank,	gesunken.
sinnen, to think,		sann; S. sönnē,	gesonnen §.
sitzen, to sit,		sas,	gesehen.
sollen, to be ordered. See § 81.			
spalten, to split,		R.	gespalten.
speien, to spit,		spie, [ne,	gespien †.
spinnen, to spin,		spann; S. spönnē,	gesponnen.
sprechen, to speak,	2. sprichſt,	sprach,	gesprochen.
sprießen, to sprout,	[2. spreußeſt,]	sproß,	gesprossen.
springen, to spring,		sprang,	gesprungen.
stechen, to sting,	2. steichſt,	stach,	gestochen.
stehen, to stand,		stand; S. stünde,	gestanden.
stehlen, to steal,	2. stiehlſt,	stahl; S. stöhlē,	gestohlen.
steigen, to ascend,		stieg,	gestiegen.

* If used transitively, it ought, according to grammarians, to have the regular conjugation; but this distinction is seldom observed, except, perhaps, in the present tense.

† Read geschrieben, gespien. See § 23. Rem. 2.

‡ When used transitively (to make swell) it is regular.

§ Gesinnt, minded, is a mere adjective, not a participle of the above verb.

*Infinitive.**Pres. Indic. Sing.**Imperf. Ind.**Part. past.*

sterben, to die,	2. stirbst,	starb; S. stirbe,	gestorben.
stieben, to disperse suddenly,		stob,	gestoben.
stinken, to stink,		stank,	gestunken.
stoßen, to push,	2. stößest,	stieß,	gestoßen.
streichen, to stroke,		strich,	gestrichen.
thun, to do,	1. thue, 2. thuſt,	that,	gethan.
	3. thut—wir thun,		
tragen, to carry,	2. trägst, [&c.	trug,	getragen.
treffen, to hit,	2. triffst,	traf,	getroffen.
treiben, to drive,		trieb,	getrieben.
treten, to tread,	2. trittst, 3. tritt,	trat,	getreten.
triefen, to drop,	[2. treuſſt]	troff,	getroffen.
trinken, to drink,		trank,	getrunken.
trügen, to deceive,		trog,	getrogen.
verbleichen, to fade. Like	erbleichen.	[dürbe,	
verderben*, to spoil,	2. verderbst,	verdarb; S. ver-	verdorben.
verdrießen, to offend (impers.),	[3. verdreußt,]	verdroß,	verdröſſen.
vergessen, to forget,	2. vergißeſt,	vergaß,	vergeſſen.
verlieren, to lose,		verlor,	verloren.
wachsen, to grow,	2. wächseſt,	wuchs	gewachsen.
wägen, to weigh (transitively),		wog,	gewogen.
waschen, to wash,	2. wäſcheſt,	wuſch,	gewaſchen.
weben, to weave,		[wob,] R.	[gewoben,] R.
weichen †, to give way,		wich,	gewichen.
weisen, to show,		wies,	gewieſen.
wenden, to turn,		wandte, R; S. R.	gewandt, R.
werben, to sue,	2. wirbſt,	warb; S. würbe,	geworben.
werden, to become. See § 75.			
werfen, to throw,	2. wirſt,	warf; S. würfe,	geworfen.
wiegen, to weigh ‡,		wog,	gewogen.
winden, to wind,		wand,	gewunden.
wissen, to know,	1. weiß, 2. weiſt,	wußte,	gewuſt.
	3. weiß,—wir wiſ-		
	[ſen, &c.		
wollen, to wish. See § 81.			
zeihen, to accuse,		zieh,	geziehen.
ziehen, to draw,	[2. zeuchſt,]	zog,	gezogen.
zwingen, to force,		zwang,	gezwungen.

* If used transitively, it ought, according to grammarians, to have the regular conjugation; but most authors use it in the above conjugation also transitively.

† Weichen, to soften, is regular.

‡ Wiegen, to rock, is regular.

Anciently the number of irregular verbs was much larger*; but a great many of them have in time become either obsolete or regular. In the latter class we must reckon the verbs *beflemmen*, to afflict; *verhehlen*, to conceal; *verwirren*, to confuse; *bellen*, to bark; *hinken*, to limp; *stecken*, to stick, and some others, which, though still enumerated in some German grammars among the irregular verbs, yet being now in all good authors conjugated regularly, have been omitted in our list. Of the three first-mentioned verbs we must, however, observe, that the irregular forms of their past participles—namely, *beflommen*, *verhohlen*, and *verworren*—occur yet very often, but only as adjectives, not as participles.

§ 86. CLASSIFICATION OF THE IRREGULAR VERBS.

As nearly all the irregular verbs admit of classification, founded on the change of the radical vowel in the imperfect and the participle past, we shall, in order to facilitate their study, class them accordingly. The few irregular verbs which cannot be referred to any of the classes, are not noticed here.

The radical vowels of the irregular verbs are, with few exceptions, either *a*, *e*, *i*, *ie*, or the diphthong *ei*; which are varied in the imperfect and participle past, after the following manner:—

Infinitive.	Imperfect.	Partic. Past.
<i>a</i> ,	{ <i>u</i> , <i>ie</i> , }	<i>a</i> .
<i>e</i> ,	{ <i>a</i> , <i>o</i> , }	<i>e</i> or <i>o</i> .
<i>ei</i> ,	<i>i</i> (or <i>ie</i>),	<i>i</i> (or <i>ie</i>).
<i>i</i> ,	<i>a</i> ,	{ <i>u</i> . <i>o</i> .
<i>ie</i> (<i>au</i> , <i>ä</i> , <i>ö</i> , <i>ü</i>),	<i>e</i> ,	<i>o</i> .

The irregular verbs may therefore be divided into five classes, according to their radical vowels; those with *a* having however two, and those with *e* three, subdivisions.

* In the 15th century there were, according to Dr. Grimm, 260 irregular verbs in German; and at a more remote period probably still more.

Class I.—*Radical vowel a.*

1st Subdivision, a, u, a,

as, schlagen, schlug, geschlagen,
like the English slay, slew, slain,
comprehends backen, fahren, graben, laden, schaffen, schlagen, tragen,
waschen, waschen.

2nd Subdivision, a, ie, a,

as, fallen, fiel, gefallen,
nearly like fall, fell, fallen,
comprehends blasen, braten, fallen, fangen, halten, hängen, lassen, ra-
then, schlafen.

Class II.—*Radical vowel e.*

1st Subdivision, e, a, e,

as, sehen, sah, gesehen,
like see, saw, seen,
comprehends essen (part. past gegessen), fressen, geben, genesen, geschehen,
lesen, messen, sehen, treten, vergessen. The verbs bitten, liegen, and
sitzen, change their radical vowel in the same manner.

2nd Subdivision, e, a, o,

as, sprechen, sprach, gesprochen,
like speak, spoke, spoken,
comprehends befehlen, bergen, bersten, brechen, dreschen, erschrecken,
gelten, helfen, nehmen, schelten, sprechen, stechen, stehlen, sterben,
treffen, verderben, werben, werden, werfen.

3rd Subdivision, e, o, o,

as, scheren, schor, geschoren,
like shear, shore, shorn,
comprehends bewegen, fechten, flechten, heben, melken, pflegen, quellen,
scheren, schmelzen, schwellen.

Class III.—*Radical vowel ei.*

ei, ie (or i *), ie (or i *),

as, beißen, biß, gebissen,
like bite, bit, bitten,
comprehends all the irregular verbs with ei—namely, kesseißen, beißen,

* Only when the vowel is followed by an aspirate (ch, f, ß,) or by d or t.—
See § 83, Obs. 1.

bleiben, erbleichen, gebeihen, gleichen, gleiten, greifen, heißen (part. past geheißen), meiden, pfeifen, preisen, reiben, reißen, reiten, scheiden, scheinen, schleichen, schleifen, schmeißen, schneiden, schreiben, schreiten, schreien, schweigen, speien, steigen, streichen, streiten, treiben, weichen, weisen, zeihen.

Class IV.—*Radical vowel i.*

i, a, u or o*,

as, singen, sang, gesungen,
like sing, sang, sung,

comprehends all the irregular verbs with i immediately followed by n, except bringen;—namely, beginnen, gewinnen, rinnen, sinnen, spinnen, binden, dingen (imperf. dung), bringen, finden, gelingen, klingen, ringen, schinden (imperf. schund), schwinden, schlingen, schwingen, singen, sinken, springen, stinken, trinken, winden, zwingen.

Class V.—*Radical vowel ie.*

ie (au, ä, ö, ü), o, o,

as, frieren, fror, gefroren,
like freeze, froze, frozen,

comprehends, with the exception of liegen, the verbs with ie and the few with au, except laufen and hauen, or with an inflected vowel ä, ö, ü,—namely, biegen, bieten, fliegen, fliehen, fließen, frieren, genießen, gießen, kriechen, riechen, schieben, schießen, schließen, sieden, sprießen, triefen, verdrießen, verlieren, wiegen, ziehen; saufen, saugen, schrauben, schrauben; erwägen, gähren, gebären (imperf. gebar), rächen, schwären; erlöschen, schwören; lügen, trügen.

Obs. 1. The learner must have perceived the close similarity between the German and English irregular conjugations; many verbs having in both languages the same, or nearly the same, variations of the radical vowel. This is particularly the case with the preceding fourth class. (Compare, for instance, the conjugation of trinken, springen, beginnen, with that of the English verbs *to drink, to spring, to begin.*) The reason why the imperfect tenses of many of these verbs have in English and German different vowels, deserves notice here.

In the ancient Teutonic, the imperfect indicative of the greater part of the irregular verbs, had in the singular (at least in the 1st and 3rd persons) a different vowel from the plural: thus, for instance, the im-

* Only the five verbs ending in innen have o instead of u.

perfect indicative of the verb *trinken*, to drink, was in Old German, *ich tranf, wir trunten*, &c.—and in Anglo-Saxon, *ic dranc, we druncon*, &c. The imperfect subjunctive was derived from the plural of the imperfect indicative—*ich trünfte, ic trunce*.

A few traces of this practice are left in the present German,—namely, 1.) in the imperfect of *werden* (see page 159); 2.) in the present tense (in form the imperfect tense—see note †, page 174) of the auxiliaries *fönnen, mögen*, &c.; and 3.) in the anomalous imperf. subj. of several verbs (see § 83, *Obs.* 2.); it being derived from the ancient form of the plural.—In English, the only remaining instance is the imperfect of the obsolete *wesan*—viz. *I was, we were, (if) I were* *. In all other verbs, both English and German, this practice has ceased, and either the vowel of the singular or that of the plural is used for both numbers of the imperfect. Now, in all the Teutonic languages, the verbs of the above-mentioned fourth class had, anciently, *a* in the sing. of the imperf. indic., and *u* in the plural. In modern German, the *a* is used throughout the whole tense in all verbs of this class, except *dingen* and *schinden*. In English, on the other hand, the *u* (in its modern sound *ou*, see note †, page 42.) prevails in all the verbs in *ind*—as, *find, wind, bind*, and in *string* and *wring*; whilst in most of the other verbs of this class, usage seems to fluctuate between the vowels of the two numbers (*a* and *u*), either being used for the whole imperfect; as, *sank, sunk; sprang, sprung; span, spun*, &c.—We may further observe, that, in the verbs of the above third class, the vowel of the plural number of the imperfect was anciently *i*; which has prevailed in modern German for both numbers in all the verbs of this class; but in English, only in the verbs *chide, slide, bite*, and *hide*;—in the others (as *write, drive*, &c.) the vowel of the Anglo-Saxon sing.—*a*, vitiated in English into *o*—was adopted for both numbers; and in *stride* and *ride*, according to the English grammars, either vowel is used—as *strode* or *strid, rode* or *rid*.

Obs. 2. In reading German, the following Table may be found useful in ascertaining the vowel of the infinitive from that of the imperfect, or of the participle past:—

* In the ancient Teutonic there were a few other verbs which changed their final radical *s* into *r*, in the same cases as the above verb; and moreover in the participle past. Thus, the Old German *verliufen*, to lose, made the imperfect ind. *ich verliös, wir verliurn*; imperf. subj. *ich verliüre*; participle past, *verliorn*. The same parts in the Anglo-Saxon verb *forleosan*, were *ic forleas, we forluron; ic forlure; forlorn*. (The last word is the only part of this derivative still remaining in English.) So also the Old German *vriufen*, Anglo-Saxon *freosan*, (to freeze); and *tiufen, ceosan*, (to choose). It will be observed, that in English, the *s* has been adopted through the whole conjugation of these verbs, and in modern German the *r*. However, of *tiufen* we have a derivative verb with either letter—*ertiefen*, and *ertüren*.—See note †, page 189.

<i>Imperf. with</i>	<i>Infinitive with</i>
a comes from	e.
a, followed by n,	{ comes } i.
	{ from }
i or ie comes from	{ a, } eh
	{ e, } ie *
o comes from	{ e, } ie *
u comes from	a.

<i>Part. Past with</i>	<i>Infinitive with</i>
i or ie comes from	ei,
o comes from	{ e, } ie *
	{ ie * }
o, followed by n,	{ come } i.
ed by n,	{ from }
u	
The other vowels come from infinitives with the same vowel.	

REFLECTIVE VERBS.

§ 87. These verbs, as already observed (§ 67), are always joined with a reflective pronoun; but except this they have nothing peculiar, and are conjugated like other verbs. For instance, the reflective verb *sich freuen*, *to rejoice*, is conjugated thus:—

*Indicative.**Present.*

ich freue mich, I rejoice.
du freuest dich, thou rejoicest.
er freuet sich, he rejoices.
wir freuen uns, we rejoice.
ihr freuet euch, you rejoice.
sie freuen sich, they rejoice.

Imperfect.

ich freuete mich, I rejoiced.
du freuetest dich, thou rejoicest, &c.

1st Future.

ich werde mich freuen, I shall rejoice.
du wirst dich freuen, thou wilt rejoice, &c.

(Thus also the Subjunctive,—Present, *ich freue mich, du freuest dich, er freue sich, &c. &c.*)

Imperative.

S. *freue dich,* } *rejoice*
(freue Er, or Sie, sich), } *(thou).*
P. *freuen wir uns, let us rejoice.*
freuet euch, } *rejoice (you).*
(freuen Sie sich),

Perfect.

ich habe mich gefreuet, I have rejoiced.
du hast dich gefreuet, thou hast rejoiced, &c.

Pluperfect.

ich hatte mich gefreuet, I had rejoiced, &c.

2nd Future.

ich werde mich gefreuet haben, I shall have rejoiced, &c.

Infinitive.

Pres. *sich freuen, to rejoice.*
 Part. *sich gefreuet haben, to have rejoiced.*

Participle Present.

sich freuend, rejoicing.

* In a few cases from *au*, or an inflected vowel (*ä, ö, or ü*); see Class V.

The part. past is not used reflectively by itself—that is, without being joined with the auxiliary *haben*.

A few verbs which govern, like the usual transitives, an object in the accusative, are always attended by the reflective pronoun in the dative, and are therefore also called reflective verbs. These are, *sich getrauen*, to venture on; *sich anmaßen*, to assume; *sich einbilden*, to imagine; *sich herausnehmen*, to presume; *sich vornehmen*, to determine upon; *sich vorstellen*, to conceive, and perhaps a few others: accordingly, we must conjugate,—Present, *ich getraue mir (etwas)*, I venture on (something), *du getrauest dir*, *er getrauet sich*, *wir getrauen uns*, *ihr getrauet euch*, *sie getrauen sich*; and so in the other tenses.

We subjoin the following observations concerning the signification of the reflective form: from the third observation it will be seen, that this form is used to denote also reciprocal action.

Obs. 1. The action expressed by reflective verbs is in its nature intransitive; hence, a few neuter verbs—as, *davon schleichen*, to sneak away; *nieder knien*, to kneel down; *verweilen*, to tarry; *untertauchen*, to dive, &c., are, without any change of import, used also in the reflective form; and we may indifferently say, *er schleicht davon*, or *er schleicht sich davon*, he sneaks away; *sie knieten nieder*, or *sie knieten sich nieder*, they kneeled down,—just as one may indiscriminately say in English, “He behaves well,” or “He behaves himself well.” For the same reason many transitive verbs are used in the reflective form, with no other difference of import than their becoming intransitive; as, *erzürnen*, to make angry; *sich erzürnen*, to become angry. See also § 67, *Obs. 2.*

Very frequently, however, transitive verbs, when used reflectively, assume a different import, which cannot be ascertained from that of the transitive verb, and which must therefore be learned from practice or the dictionary. Thus, *benehmen*, to deprive of,—*sich benehmen*, to behave; *versprechen*, to promise,—*sich versprechen*, to make a slip of the tongue.

Obs. 2. The third person of transitive verbs is sometimes employed reflectively with a passive import. This is done chiefly in two cases: 1.) When the object of an action excites our principal attention, its subject being indefinite or little noticed by us, so that we may fancy the action to proceed from the object; as, *Da öffnete sich die Thür, und es &c.*, then the door opened (was opened), and &c.; *Tausend Schwerter entblößten sich*, a thousand swords were unsheathed; *Der Schlüssel bat*

sich gefunden, *the key has been found*. 2.) When ability, or aptitude for an action, is to be denoted; which in English is frequently rendered by the auxiliary *can*; as, *Dieses lernet sich nur aus der Erfahrung, this can be learned only from experience*; *Diese Verse lesen sich sehr gut, these verses read very well*; *Eine solche Beleidigung vergißt sich nicht leicht, such an offence is not easily forgotten* *. Very often, however, the auxiliary *lassen* is employed in the construction of such phrases. See § 86, *Obs.* 2.

Obs. 3. It has already been noticed (§ 60, *Obs.* 2.), that the reflexive pronouns *uns*, *euch*, and *sich*, may be used also in a reciprocal sense, denoting *each other*.—See the examples in § 60, *Obs.* 2. We may here add, that to express reciprocity, the word *einander*, *each other*, is often used instead of, or added to, these pronouns; especially if the pronouns might be taken in a reflexive sense; as, *Diese Leute plagen einander* (or *plagen sich einander*), *these people plague each other*,—*plagen sich* might readily be mistaken for *plague themselves*.

In the cases just considered, the action is simply transitive, and its reciprocity merely accidental. There are however some verbs which might be called reciprocal verbs, because they denote an action reciprocal in its nature; as, *sich schlagen, to fight a duel*; *sich verabreden, to agree upon*; *sich vereinigen, to unite with*; *sich entzweien, to fall out*; *sich aus-söhnen, to become reconciled with, to make it up with*, &c. Such verbs have the reflexive form throughout their conjugation; as, *ich schlage mich* (mit jemanden), *I fight (with somebody)*, *du schlägst dich*, *er schlägt sich*, *wir schlagen uns*, &c. The other agent, if not included in the nominative of the verb, is joined with the preposition *mit*, *with*; as, *Ich schlage mich mit meinem Gegner, I fight with my adversary*; *Wir schlugen uns mit dem Feinde, we fought with the enemy*; *Er zankte sich mit seinem Bruder, he quarrelled with his brother* †. If no other agent is particularly mentioned, the nominative, generally, includes both parties; for instance, *Wir schlugen uns* would usually be understood to mean, *we fought with each other*.

IMPERSONAL VERBS.

§ 88. With the exception of the imperative, which is not used in the 3rd person (see note *, page 154), the imper-

* The affinity between the passive and the reflexive import may also be perceived in the classic languages, where the converse of the above-mentioned usage occurs—the passive form having often a reflexive signification—*lavor* (I wash myself); *fallor* (I deceive myself);—so also the middle voice in Greek.

† That is, the quarrelling was reciprocal; but if this verb has not the reflexive form, the noun after *mit* is not one of the agents, but the mere object of the action; as, *Er zankte mit seinem Bedienten, he scolded his servant*.

sonal verbs are employed in all moods and tenses; as, regnen, *to rain*; es regnet, *it rains*; es regnete, *it rained*; es wird regnen, *it will rain*; es hat geregnet, *it has rained*; (er sagt) es regne, (*he says*) *it rains*, &c. &c. Many verbs which in English are personal verbs, have in German the impersonal form, the person (in English the nominative) being put either in the accusative (which is more generally the case), or in the dative; as,

es hungert mich, <i>I am hungry.</i>	es gelingt mir, <i>I succeed.</i>
es hungert dich, <i>thou art hungry.</i>	es gelingt dir, <i>thou succeedest.</i>
es hungert ihn (sie), <i>he (or she) is hungry.</i>	es gelingt ihm, <i>he succeeds.</i>
es hungert uns, <i>we are hungry.</i>	es gelingt uns, <i>we succeed.</i>
es hungert euch, <i>you are hungry.</i>	es gelingt euch, <i>you succeed.</i>
es hungert sie, <i>they are hungry.</i>	es gelingt ihnen, <i>they succeed.</i>

This form is particularly employed to express sensations or feelings of the moment; as,

Es durftet mich, *I am thirsty*; es schaudert mich, *I shudder*; es schläfert mich, *I am sleepy*; es verlangt mich, *I long for*; es reuet mich, *I repent, or it repenteth me*; es verdrießt mich, *I am vexed*; es freuet mich, *I am glad*; es friert mich, *I am cold* (es friert, without an accusative of the person, denotes *it freezes*); es ahnet mir, *my mind forebodes*; es schwindelt mir, *I feel giddy*; es ist mir leid, *I am sorry*; es ist mir nicht wohl, *I feel unwell*; es wird mir ohnmächtig, *I feel faint*, &c. &c.

A few impersonals have the reflective form*; as, es ereignet sich, *it happens*; es geizt (gebüht) sich, *it is becoming*; es verlohnt sich (der Mühe), *it is worth (while)*, &c. &c.

Obs. 1. Several personal verbs are used also impersonally, but generally with a different import. Thus, er hungert und friert, signifies *he is starving with hunger and cold*; whilst the impersonals, es hungert ihn, es friert ihn, denote merely the temporary feeling of hunger or cold. So also, er begegnete mir, *he met me*—es begegnete mir, *it happened to me, I met with*; er begab sich, *he betook himself*—es begab sich, *it happened*; er heißt, *he is called*—es heißt, *it is said*. The import of such impersonals must be ascertained from the dictionary; as no rule can be laid down with regard to the modification of the personal verbs by the impersonal form, except in the cases mentioned in the next observation.

* These verbs, which are never used personally, must not be confounded with the reflective impersonal form explained in Obs. 2., which is a mere modification of personal verbs.

Obs. 2. In order to state an action without any reference to its agent, personal verbs (whether transitive or intransitive) may be used impersonally both in the passive and in the reflective form; each form, however, with a different modification of the verb—namely,

1.) The *passive impersonal form* signifies simply the performance of an action, without reference to any definite subject; as, *Es wird gelacht, gespielt, und getanzt im nächsten Zimmer, there is laughing, playing, and dancing in the next room* *; *Es wird geklopft, some one knocks*; *Es darf hier nicht geraucht werden, smoking is not allowed here*; *Es wird heute früh gespeiset, dinner will be early today.*

2.) The *reflective impersonal form* implies an aptitude to, an action; as, *Es tanzt sich gut in diesem Zimmer, this room is well suited to dancing*; *Es schreibt sich nicht gut mit dieser Feder, one cannot write well with this pen* †.

It will be observed, that these impersonal forms are in signification analogous to the third person used reflectively with a passive import (§ 87, *Obs. 2.*), inasmuch as they all refer the action to an indefinite subject: and indeed they may all be rendered by the indefinite pronoun *man*, *one, they*, with the active form of the verb; as, *Man tanzt im nächsten Zimmer, they dance in the next room*; *Man hat den Schlüssel gefunden, they have found the key.* The reflective impersonals, as well as the other reflectives denoting aptitude or ability (§ 87, *Obs. 2.*), may be rendered also by *sich lassen*, or by *können*, with the infinitive of the principal verb; as, *Es läßt sich (or Man kann) nicht gut mit dieser Feder schreiben, one cannot write well with this pen*; *Das läßt sich (or Man kann das) nur aus der Erfahrung lernen, one can learn that only from experience.*—See also § 82, *Obs. 2.*

Obs. 3. In the passive impersonal verbs, *es* must be omitted (and consequently the verb is without a nominative) whenever, according to the German order of words, it cannot immediately precede its verb—that is, in all those cases where the verb either precedes its nominative, as in inversions, or is placed last in the sentence, as in subordinate clauses (see the order of words in the Syntax). The following are examples: *Im nächsten Zimmer wird (not wird es) getanzt, in the next room people are dancing*; *Wann wird heute gespeiset? when do we (or they) dine to-day?* *Ich glaube, daß (not daß es) geklopft wird, I believe somebody knocks.* *Es* under the same circumstances (i. e. when it cannot precede its verb,) is very generally omitted with the impersonals denoting

* Just like the Latin impersonals, *videtur, luditur, saltatur, itur, &c.*

† If the *es* of such expressions has not an indefinite import, but refers to a following clause, the verb belongs to the class of reflectives mentioned at § 87, *Obs. 2.*, and has therefore a passive import; as, *Es fand sich nachher, daß &c., it was found afterwards that &c.*; *Es versteht sich, daß er &c., it is understood (it is a matter of course) that he &c.*

feelings or sensations, and invariably so with the impersonals *es* *ist* and *es* *wird* when accompanied by a predicate of this import; as, *mich hun- gert, I am hungry*; *uns durstet, we are thirsty*; *wenn dich friert, if thou art cold*; *mich dünkt, methinks* *; *ist* (not *ist es*) *Ihnen nicht wohl? are you not well?* *mir wurde* (not *wurde es*) *übel, I fainted, &c.*

Obs. 4. There is an impersonal form, if we may call it so, in which *es* is not the subject to the verb, but rather a particle of an indefinite import, often answering to the English *there*, the real nominative to the verb being placed after the verb; as, *Es kommen noch mehr Gäste, there are more guests coming*; *Es klopft jemand, there is somebody knocking*; *Es ist Friede gemacht worden, peace has been made*; *Es ist ein Gott, there is a God*. This form, which may be used with most verbs, seems intended to draw our attention more to the nominative; and therefore it is chiefly employed when, as in the above examples, the nominative either is an unascertained subject, or is now first introduced to our notice. Hence, it is not used if the nominative be a personal pronoun or a proper name. Thus we could not say, *Es kommen sie, they are coming*; *Es klopft Heinrich, Henry is knocking*. This form is used also optatively, or imperatively; as, *Es lebe der König! long live the king!* *Es herrsche das Recht, let the right prevail*.

In these impersonals, too, *es* must immediately precede the verb, and is therefore omitted in all those cases in which it must be omitted in the passive impersonal (see the preceding observation); as, *Diesen Abend kommen* (not *kommen es*) *noch mehr Gäste, this evening there are more guests coming*; *klopft* (not *klopft es*) *jemand? is there anybody knock- ing?* *wenn Friede gemacht ist, if peace has been made*.—It will be seen from these examples, that the English *there*, in such instances, must remain untranslated.

COMPOUND VERBS.

§ 89. Verbs are compounded almost exclusively with particles denoting a local relation, which, with few exceptions, are used also as prepositions. Most of these particles are *separable*—that is, in certain cases explained hereafter, they are separated from the verb with which they are compound- ed; some are *inseparable*; and a few are both separable and inseparable. (Regarding the latter, see § 90.)

The inseparable particles are, *hinter, behind*; *wider, against* (see however § 90, *Obs. 4.*); *voll, full*; and *miß,*

* The above, it would seem, is the only instance remaining in English of this construction, which in Anglo-Saxon was more extensively used.

mis;—among which are generally reckoned also the prefixes *be*, *emp*, *ent*, *er*, *ge*, *ver*, and *zer*, (though, strictly speaking, the latter are mere servile syllables—see § 12.) These particles are never separated from the verbs with which they are compounded; and such compound verbs need no further explanation in this place, having, as already stated (§§ 74 and 84), nothing peculiar in form to distinguish them from other verbs, except the omission of the augment.

The following nineteen are separable particles: (See also *Obs. 2.*)

<i>ab</i> , <i>off</i> .	<i>fort</i> , <i>away</i> , <i>forth</i> .	<i>ob</i> , <i>over</i> , <i>on</i> .
<i>an</i> , <i>on</i> .	<i>her</i> , <i>hither</i> .	<i>vor</i> , <i>before</i> .
<i>auf</i> , <i>up</i> .	<i>hin</i> , <i>thither</i> .	<i>weg</i> , <i>away</i> .
<i>aus</i> , <i>out</i> .	<i>los</i> , <i>loose</i> .	<i>wieder</i> , <i>again</i> , <i>back</i> .
<i>bei</i> , <i>by</i> .	<i>mit</i> , <i>with</i> .	<i>zu</i> , <i>to</i> .
<i>dar</i> , <i>there</i> .	<i>nach</i> , <i>after</i> .	
<i>ein</i> , <i>in</i> .	<i>nieder</i> , <i>down</i> .	

The following are examples of verbs compounded with such particles:—*abreisen*, *to set off*, *to depart*; *fortgehen*, *to go away*, *to follow*; *aufheben*, *to lift up*; *ausgießen*, *to pour out*; *anfangen*, *to begin*; *einführen*, *to lead in*, *to import*; *ausführen*, *to export*; *beistehen*, *to stand by*, *to assist*; *hinreichen*, *to suffice*; *zumachen*, *to shut to*.

Obs. 1. From the preceding examples it may be seen, that these compounds are quite similar to such English verbs as 'to set in,' 'to set out,' 'to set off,' 'to set forth,' 'to set on,' 'to set to,' 'to set up,' &c., which are also considered as compounds by English grammarians, though the particle and the verb are not joined in writing.

With regard to the separation of these particles from their verbs, the following rules must be observed:—

1st. In the present and imperfect tenses, both indicative and subjunctive, the particle is separated and placed after its verb, and even after the words depending upon the verb (if there be such in the proposition); except when the verb depends upon a relative, or a subordinative conjunction (see the Conjunctions), in which case the particle remains unseparated.

2dly. In the imperative the particle is always separated, and placed after the verb and its dependents.

3dly. In the infinitive and participles the particle remains always prefixed. However, when the infinitive requires *zu*, to, this word is inserted between the separable particle and the verb, all three being joined as one word; as, *Ich muß es aufmachen (zumachen), I must open (shut) it; Ich bin genöthigt es aufzumachen (zuzumachen), I am obliged to open (shut) it.* The same insertion takes place with respect to the augment *ge* in the participle past,—*aufgemacht, zuge-macht, opened, shut.*—See also the end of page 156.

We will exemplify the preceding rules by the verbs *ausgehen, to go out*, and *vorstellen, to present, also to represent.* The former verb is irregular—see *gehen*, page 189.

(Rule 1.) *Ich gehe aus*, I go out; Ich gehe jeden Tag aus, I go out every day; Singen Sie gestern aus? did you go out yesterday; Er sagt, er gehe nie aus, he says, he never goes out; Ich stellte ihm meinen Nef-fen vor, I presented my nephew to him; Warum stellen Sie uns nicht Ihrer Schwester vor? why do you not present us to your sister?—Es regnet immer, wenn ich ausgehe, it always rains when I go out; Ich kenne den Herrn, mit welchem er ausging, I know the gentleman with whom he went out; Ich wünschte, daß er Sie bei Hofe vorstellte, I wished that he would introduce you at court; Ich fragte ihn, wen er vorstellte, I asked him whom he represented.*

(Rule 2.) *Stellen Sie uns Ihrer Schwester vor, introduce us to your sister; Gehe nicht allein aus, do not go out by yourself.*

(Rule 3.) *Er hat mich nicht vorgestellt, he has not presented me; Sie ist nicht ausgegangen, she is not gone out; Ich werde heute aus-gehen (ihn vorstellen), I shall go out (present him) today; Er bat mich mit ihm auszugeben (ihn vorzustellen), he begged me to go out with him (to present him); Mich seiner Mutter vorstellend, sagte er, &c., intro-ducing me to his mother, he said, &c.*—See also § 92, *Obs.*

Obs. 2. There are many other words, of almost all parts of speech, which, like the preceding particles, form an essential part of the meaning of the verb to which they are added, and may therefore be considered, to a certain degree, as a component part of it, though they are not united with it as one word. Thus in the expressions, *Troß bieten, to bid defiance; spazieren geben, to take a walk; groß thun, to brag; sich anheischig machen (zu etwas), to engage oneself (to something); Bedenken tragen, to hesitate; zu Grunde gehen, to perish; zu Rathe zie-hen, to consult*, the words preceding the infinitive form but one idea

* Even when separated, the particle has the verbal accent,—just like the English particles *out*, &c. mentioned in the above Observation. Compare § 90.

with it; which indeed, in English and in other languages, is often expressed by a simple verb. These separate verbal components, as they may be called, not only affect the sense of the verb like the above-mentioned separable particles, but also occupy the same place in the sentence; that is, in those cases where the particle remains un-separated (viz. in the infinitive and participles, and the finite verb of subordinate clauses), they, too, remain before the verb; but in the other cases, where the particle is thrown to the end of the sentence, they are so likewise; as, *Ich werde ihm Troß bieten, I shall defy him; Ich habe keine Zeit spazieren zu gehen, I have no time to take a walk; Es regnet immer, wenn ich spazieren gehe, it always rains when I take a walk; Ich gehe jeden Tag spazieren, I take a walk every day; Thun Sie mit Ihrem Reichthum nicht so groß, do not brag so much about your riches.*

From what has been said, the student will readily observe, 1.) That when a word or phrase at the end of a sentence or clause is in sense unconnected with the words immediately preceding it, it must be considered as a component part of the verb, in conjunction with which its import must be ascertained; 2.) That, on the other hand, in learning a German verb from the dictionary, all the words preceding the infinitive must be considered as separate components of the verb, which must take their places before the verb or at the end of the sentence, according to the above directions; 3.) That the difference between these verbal components and the 19 separable particles of the above list (p. 204), is merely of an orthographical nature,—the former being always written separately, whilst the latter are united with the verb when preceding it.—See, however, *Obs. 4.*

Obs. 3. The position of the verbal component with regard to its verb arises from a peculiarity in the German order of words, which, being also the cause of the separation of the particle from its verb, it will be useful briefly to explain here:—

It is a general rule, which obtains, more or less, also in other languages, that the limiting or explanatory word should precede that which it limits or explains; or, in other words, that the dependent should precede the word upon which it depends. Thus, in the phrases, “very beautifully furnished houses,” “my neighbour’s children,” every word limits and defines the next following. In German this rule holds good, in certain instances, also with verbs; namely, with the infinitive and participles, and with the finite * verb of subordinate clauses; and all the words, therefore, that limit or depend on the verb, must in these instances precede it,—more closely or more remotely, according to their closer or remoter connexion with it.

* *Finite verb*, is the verb inflected according to person and number—that is, any part of the verb but the infinitive and participles.

Hence the words treated of in the last observation, as forming a component part of the verb, and which are therefore most closely connected with it, must then precede it immediately in those cases. See the three first examples in the preceding page.

In the cases, it must be observed, in which the verb takes this position after all its dependents, it is not assertive*; for the infinitive and participles are mere verbal nouns, and the finite verb of a subordinate clause does not assert or impart any new fact to the hearer. But in independent propositions, where the verb is in its proper function of asserting, the finite verb, as the part implying the assertion, is placed close to its subject, whilst all the other words remain in the same order as in the subordinate clause. Accordingly, the verbal component, which in the subordinate clause is last but one,—being followed only by the verb,—is in the independent proposition the very last; so that all the other dependents of the verb are inserted between the verb and its component.—See the three last examples of the preceding *Obs.*

This tendency of the assertive verb to precede all the words limiting it, is the cause that in verbs compounded with any of the above-mentioned nineteen particles, the particle, as a limiting word of the simple verb, is disjoined and put at its usual place at the end of the sentence, when the verb is assertive, and therefore placed close to its subject.

The preceding remark may, more concisely, be expressed thus:—In an independent sentence the copula †, or the part of the verb implying the copula, stands close to the subject, whilst the predicate † is quite at the end of the sentence. This tendency of the assertive copula and the predicate, to occupy respectively almost the two extremes of the sentence, is the cause, that with compound verbs soluble into their component parts, the simple verb, as implying the copula, is in independent sentences divested of its component, which, as belonging to the predi-

* See the Conjunctions, where the difference between the assertive and non-assertive verb will be fully explained.

† As these terms will occur often in the sequel, a short explanation of them may perhaps be acceptable to some learners:—In every proposition there must be, 1st, a *subject*; that is, a noun or pronoun to which we attribute something (as an action, a state, or some circumstance); 2ndly, a *predicate*, or *attribute*; that is, the action or state, &c. which is attributed; and 3rdly, a *copula*; that is, the word denoting the attribution, or the word that unites the predicate with the subject. Thus in the proposition “John is writing,” (or “is rich,” or “is here,”) “John” is the subject, “writing” (“rich,” or “here,”) the predicate, and “is” the copula. The verb *to be* is the only verb which can be used as a pure copula; that is, as denoting merely the attribution, without any part of the attribute (predicate); all the other verbs imply, besides the attribution or copula, either the whole or part of the predicate. Thus if we say, “The days increase,” the verb includes the copula and the whole predicate,—being equivalent to “are increasing”; but if we say, “The days get longer,” the verb, being equivalent to “are getting,” contains only a part of the predicate,—the word “longer” forming the other part.

cate, takes its place at the end of the sentence. Hence it comes also that there are no *inseparable* compound verbs in German, but such as belong to the second class of compounds mentioned in section 19.— See also the following *Obs.*

Obs. 4. In our list of the separable particles, we have followed the authority of Adelung, who asserts that those alone have that orthographical privilege of being united with their verbs when preceding them, and that all other words forming component parts of the verb ought to be written separately. But though this rule may suffice for the student in his writing German, it must be allowed that usage in this respect is not uniform, and that, as he will observe in reading, a great many other words are now frequently joined with their verbs in the same manner as the above particles. Among these the following may, perhaps, be distinguished as most commonly joined:—*empor*, upwards; *entgegen*, towards, also against; *heim*, home; *überein*, concordant; *zurück*, back; *zusammen*, together; and almost all adverbs compounded with *her*, *hin*, or *vor* (e.g. *heraus*, out; *hinein*, in; *vorbei*, over, &c.); as, *emporkommen*, to get up, to rise; *entgegengehen*, to go to meet; *heimkehren*, to return home; *übereinstimmen*, to agree, to accord; *herauskommen*, to come out; *vorübergehen*, to pass by, &c. &c. Several adjectives, too, and even some substantives, are often joined with particular verbs, when they are used figuratively; as, *wahrnehmen*, to become aware, to perceive; *wahrsagen*, to prophecy (which is, however, often used as an inseparable compound); *festnehmen*, to arrest; *freisprechen*, to acquit; *haushalten*, to keep house; *glückwünschen*, to congratulate, &c.

As it would be difficult to give a complete list of all the words which are, more or less generally, united with verbs in the same manner as the separable particles, it may suffice merely to remark, that all compound verbs (i. e. of which both parts are separately current) occurring in German must be considered as separable; except those compounded with inseparable particles (see the beginning of this section), and those given in the margin below *, which are also inseparable. The latter, however, (most of which occur but seldom,) can hardly be called exceptions, as they are, for the greatest part, not compound verbs, but derivatives of compound nouns: thus, *hofmeistern*, to censure, is not a compound of *hof* and *meistern*, but is derived from the substantive *hofmeister*, governor; *frühstücken*, to breakfast, is derived from *das Frühstück*, the breakfast.

* *Argwohnen*, brandschätzen, frohlocken, frühstücken, fuchsschwänzen, glatteisen, herbergen, hofmeistern, hohnschießen, hohnreden, kassbalgen, kielholen, kurzweilen, langweilen, liebäugeln, lieblosen, lustwandeln, muthmaßen, nachtwandeln, nothzüchtigen, rechtfertigen, schulmeistern, tagewerken, wetterleuchten, wetteifern, weisagen, wehklagen, wortwechseln; and all the verbs given § 84, *Obs. 1.*

We will conclude by adding the following remarks:—1.) When at the beginning of a compound verb there are two particles, these conjoined form the separable part of the verb; as, *zuvorkommen*, to *prevent*; *davonlaufen*, to *run away*—*er kommt zuvor*, &c.—The verb *übervorthellen*, to *overreach*, it may here be observed, is inseparable. 2.) If a verb begins with any of the seven prefixes, no part of it is separable, though such prefix should happen to be followed by one of the separable particles; as, *beauftragen*, to *commission*; *vernachlässigen*, to *neglect*—*ich beauftrage*, &c. However, in *bevorstehen*, to *await*, and in compounds with *entzwei*, in *two* (as, *entzweibrechen*, to *break in two*, &c.), *bevor* and *entzwei* are separable; as, *Was steht mir bevor?* *what awaits me?* *Es brach entzwei*, *it broke in two*. 3.) On the other hand, when the separable particle begins the compound verb, it is separable even when the second component part, (i. e. the verb,) begins with a prefix; as, *aufbewahren*, to *preserve*; *anbefehlen*, to *enjoin*—*ich bewahre auf*, &c. That in such compounds the participle past drops the augment *ge*, has already been mentioned (p. 156). 4.) There are a few compound verbs which are inseparable merely because they are never used assertively; that is, as the finite verb of an independent proposition (see *Obs.* 3.), and which may therefore be considered as defective. This is chiefly the case with the few compound verbs beginning with *auser* and *aüßer*; as, *auserziehen*, to *bring up from infancy*; *auserlegen*, to *enjoin*; *auserwählen*, to *select*, &c.; none of which verbs occur assertively, and some of them are used only in the infinitive and participles. The verb *vorenthalten*, to *withhold illegally*, also hardly ever occurs assertively. The verbs *lobsingen*, to *sing in praise*, and *lobpreisen*, to *praise*, to *exalt*, occur only in the infinitive; and *anbetreffen*, or *anbelangen*, to *concern*, is used only in the expression, *was mich (dich, uns, &c.) anbetrifft* (or *anbelangt*), *as for what concerns me (thee, us, &c.)*.

§ 90. The four particles, *durch*, *through*; *über*, *over*; *um*, *round*, or *round about*, also *down*; *unter*, *under*, are in some verbs separable, in many others inseparable, and in some separable or inseparable, according to their import. When separable, they have the principal accent *, and are subjected to the same rules as the other separable particles (§ 89); when inseparable, the accent is on the second component *, the verb, and, consequently, the participle past has not the augment *ge* (see §§ 19 and 74); as, *untergehen*, to *go down*, also to *perish*; *die Sonne geht unter*, *the sun sets*, *sie ist untergegangen*, *it has set*; in *Gefahr unterzugehen*, in

* Just as the English accent to *look over* and to *overlook*.

danger of perishing;—*unternehmen, to undertake*; *ich unternehme, I undertake*; *ich habe unternommen, I have undertaken*; *wir wünschen daß zu unternehmen, we wish to undertake that*; *unterhalten, to hold under*; *ich halte unter, I hold under, &c.*;—*unterhalten, to amuse*; *ich unterhalte, I amuse, &c.*

The following rules will serve for ascertaining when these four particles are separable, and when not:—

I. When the particles imply in their respective compounds the same relation of place which they denote as prepositions—namely, *durch, through* (i. e. *from end to end*); *um, round, on all sides*; *über, over*; and *unter, under*—they are inseparable if the object of the local relation they denote is the accusative* of the compound verb, and separable if that object is not expressed—it being understood or left out of view. See *Obs. 1.*

II. But when in the compound, the particle is used in a different sense from that which it has as a preposition, or when its peculiar import is not distinctly felt in the compound, *durch* and *um* are separable, and *über* and *unter* are inseparable (see also *Obs. 3.*).

I. Examples of the first Rule:—*Ein Strom durchfließt die Stadt, a stream flows through the town*; *Die Wellen durchbrachen den Damm, the waves broke through the sea-wall*; *Er durchreis'te viele Länder, he travelled through many countries*;—*Ich hielt mich an jenem Ort nicht auf, ich reis'te nur durch, I did not stay at that place, I merely passed through [it]*; *Sie ließen mich nicht durch, they did not let me through.*

Wir umschifften die Insel, we sailed round the island; *Er umarmte das Kind, he embraced (threw his arms around) the child*; *Umgürtet eure Lenden mit Wahrheit, gird your loins about with truth*;—*Gürte mir das Schwert um, gird me on my sword*; *Wirf einen Mantel um, throw a cloak round [you].*

Er überfuhr einen Mann, he drove over a man; *Uebergebe diese Stelle, pass by (or over) this passage*;—*Er fuhr über, he crossed over (the river)*;

* The accusative case of the active voice being the subject or nominative of the passive, the object referred to by the inseparable particle is accordingly, in the passive voice, in the nominative case; as, *Der Damm ist durchbrochen, the dam is broken through*; *Er ist von Feinden umgeben, he is surrounded by enemies.* This is probably also the reason that the two neuter verbs, *überfrieren, to freeze over*, *überhatschen, to cicatrize over*, in which the particle refers to the nominative, are inseparable; their import being more of a passive nature.

Das Wasser kocht über, *the water boils over*; Er ging zum Feinde über, *he went over to the enemy*.

Sie unterböhlt die Feste, *they undermined the fortress*; Unterstreiche dieses Wort, *underline this word*; Er unterband es mit einer Schnur, *he tied a string below it*;—Er band ein Tuch unter, *he tied a cloth below* (something understood); Das Schiff ging unter, *the ship went down*; Er tauchte unter, *he dived under*; Wir standen unter, *we stood under*.

II. Examples of the second Rule:—Er hat das ganze Land durchgereist, *he has travelled all over the country* (see Obs. 2.); Sie hat ihre Schuhe durchgegangen, *she has worn out her shoes*; Er hat sein ganzes Vermögen durchgebracht, *he has run through all his fortune*;—Sie fiel um, *she fell down*; Wir kehrten um, *we turned back*; Wende das Blatt um, *turn over the leaf*; Er sah sich um, *he looked about*; Ich bringe Sie um, *I kill you*; Er rannte (or fuhr) ein Kind um, *he ran (or drove) a child down*; Wir sind viel umgefahren, *we have driven very circuitously*; Ich habe diesen Aufsatz umgearbeitet, *I have recast this essay*; Er schrieb den Brief um, *he transcribed the letter* (in the sense of *to paraphrase*, however, *umschreiben* is inseparable).

Ich bin gezwungen das zu überarbeiten (überschreiben), *I am obliged to do (write) this over again*; Er überzeugte mich, *he convinced me*; Das ist übertrieben, *that is exaggerated*;—Unterbrich mich nicht, *do not interrupt me*; Er unternimmt es, *he undertakes it*.

The following inseparable compounds are some further examples of the second rule:—überbieten, *to outbid*; übereilen, *to overhasten*; überwintern, *to pass the winter*; übernachten, *to pass the night*; überladen, *to overload*; übertreffen, *to surpass*; unterrichten, *to instruct*; unterbleiben, *to remain unexecuted*.

Obs. 1. It will be seen that the inseparable compounds belonging to the first rule, are always attended by an accusative case which is the object of the prepositional function * involved in the compound, and not of the simple verb; thus, the above accusatives, Stadt, Insel, Mann, and Feste, are the objects *through, round, over, or under* which the action of the respective verbs is directed. But the separable compounds of the first rule either are (as in the example *er reiste durch*) intransitive, or, when transitive (as in *Sie ließen mich nicht durch*), the accusative is the object of the action expressed by the simple verb, (the latter being then a transitive,) and not of the particle, which, by the relation of place it expresses, merely defines the

* If the simple verb is transitive, its object must in the compound be preceded by *mit, with*,—just as one would say in English, “He underlaid the diamond with foil,”—instead of “He laid foil under the diamond.” See the above example of the inseparable *unterbinden*.

direction of the action. The characteristic, therefore, of the separable particle is adverbial, and that of the inseparable is prepositional. Hence the accusative of the inseparable compounds, like that of a preposition, is stationary with regard to the action, whilst the accusative of the separable compounds undergoes in the action the change of place indicated by the particle.—See the two examples of *umgürten*, and those of *unterbinden*.

Obs. 2. When the separable particle *durch* refers to an accusative expressed (see for instance the first example of the second rule,) it does not, as when inseparable, denote the same relation of place as the preposition *durch*—viz. simply *from end to end*, but implies a continuation of the action to the end of the object *, without any particular reference to the beginning of it. Such compounds, therefore, are often joined with adverbs which refer only to the latter part of the action or energy as directed to the end of the object; whilst, when the same verbs are inseparable, the adverbs must refer to the action as directed to the whole object. Thus, *Er hat das Jahr glücklich durchgelebt*, *happily he has lived the year out*, infers that he was not expected to live to the end of the year, and the adverb “happily” therefore relates to his having lived to the end of that time; but, *Er hat das Jahr glücklich durchlebt* signifies *he has lived (all) the year happy*; *Er hat das Holz nicht durchgehört* infers that he has bored at the wood, but not quite *through*; but *nicht durchhört* simply denies the action. Hence, all inseparable compounds with *durch*, except such as preclude this idea of *continuation*—as, *durchkreuzen*, *to intersect*; *durchweben*, *to interweave*—may be used also separably to denote *continuation of the action till quite through the object*.

Obs. 3. On examining the above two rules, it will be seen, that in the first are comprehended all the inseparable compounds of *durch* and *um*, and all the separable compounds of *über* and *unter*. The two rules may therefore more compendiously be expressed thus:—The particles *durch* and *um* are always separable, except when involving a prepositional function; that is, a direction *through*, or *round*, the accusative of the compound verb, in which case they are inseparable;—and, on the other hand, the particles *über* and *unter* are always inseparable, except when they have the character of adverbs of place; that is, when denoting *over* and *under* merely with regard to the action or energy expressed by the simple verb, leaving out of view the object of *over* or *under*.

With regard to the latter particles we add the following remarks:—
1.) In the separable compounds *übertreiben*, *to remain* (as *leavings*), and

* Analogously to such English phrases as, “to talk oneself hoarse,” “to cough a person down”; which imply a continuance of the action till that effect is produced.

überlassen, to leave (as remnants), *über* is used for *übrig*, remaining. In a few other separable compounds, *über* denotes off or beyond the basis; as, *übersfürzen* or *überschlagen*, to fall upside down or backwards. When used in the reflective form, though they have the same import, they are inseparable; as, *Er überschlug sich*, he fell backwards. 2.) When the proper import of a separable compound is used metaphorically, it remains separable; as, *übertreten*, to step over (to another place);—hence, figuratively, *Er ging zu einer andern Partei über*, he went over to another party; *untergehen* is separable, whether denoting to go down (below the surface, or horizon), or to perish. The subjoined verbs are inseparable; probably because no metaphor is felt in German,—that is, the verbs suggest directly to the mind the idea to be conveyed, without the intervention of the proper or local meaning of over or under:—*übersetzen*, to translate; *überreden*, to persuade; *unterdrücken*, to suppress; *unterwerfen*, to submit, to subject; *unterliegen*, to succumb; *unterschreiben*, to subscribe, to sign (whether with reference to a paper, or to one's name); *sich unterziehen* (einer Arbeit), to take upon oneself (a work); and perhaps a few others. 4.) Compounds with *über* implying a transferring over to another person—as, *übertiefen*, to deliver; *übermachen*, to make over; *überschicken*, to remit, &c.—are inseparable.

Obs. 4. We have classed *wieder*, again, back, among the particles which are always separable, and *wider*, against, among those which are always inseparable: as exceptions, we must however notice here the verb *wiederholen*, which is inseparable when denoting to repeat, but separable when denoting to fetch back; and the verb *widerhalten*, to resist, or not to give way, which is separable.

REMARKS ON THE INFINITIVE AND PARTICIPLES.

§ 91. Before we conclude our account of the verb, it may be proper to consider the infinitive and participles in their use as verbal nouns (i. e. the infinitive as a substantive, and the participles as adjectives), and notice a few peculiarities in their import.

The simple infinitive (not those formed by the aid of auxiliaries,) is often used as a substantive, answering to the English verbal noun in *ing*; as, *das Lesen*, the reading; *das Weinen*, the crying; *das Fluchen*, the swearing, and is then declined like an ordinary substantive;—*das Lesen*, *des Lesens*, *dem Lesen*, *das Lesen*; but from the nature of its signification, it is unusual in the plural. It is often governed by prepositions; as, *im* (i. e. in dem—see § 30, *Obs.* 3.) *Weg-*

gehen, *in the going away*; vom vielen Weinen, *from crying much*. It is mostly, as in the preceding examples, preceded by the definite article, often by other definitives, and sometimes it is used without any definitive; as, ein allgemeines Jauchzen, *a general shouting*; das Ziel meines Strebens, *the end of my striving*; mit bloßem Reden, *with mere talking*; biß auf Wiedersehen, *until our meeting again*.

Obs. 1. In many instances, these nouns not merely denote the action implied in the verb, but are used in a more extended signification, and in a few cases even in a concrete sense; as, das Versprechen, *the promise* (and not merely the promising); das Verbrechen, *the crime*; das Auskommen, *the sufficiency*; das Schreiben, *the writing, the letter*.

As may be seen from these examples, the German infinitive, used as a noun, is sometimes rendered in English by a usual substantive, and not by the verbal in *ing*. But the contrary is oftener the case, the English verbal in *ing* being frequently rendered by an ordinary substantive in German, and not by the infinitive noun: as, *the beginning*, der Anfang; *the feeling*, das Gefühl; *the (sense of) hearing*, das Gehör;—especially when used as a concrete noun;—*the drawing*, die Zeichnung; *the painting*, das Gemälde (das Zeichnen, das Malen, denote merely the *actions* of drawing and of painting). When this verbal forms in English the first part of a compound, it is generally rendered in German by the root of the verb; as, *writing-paper*, Schreibpapier; *dancing-master*, Tanzmeister; *playing-cards*, Spielkarten; *spinning-wheel*, Spinnrad, &c.

Obs. 2. In phrases where this verbal noun is preceded by zum (i. e. zu dem), there is always the relation of means and end implied, the leading word denoting the means to the action expressed by this verbal. And it is by this that it is mostly distinguished from the mere infinitive preceded by zu, in which this relation is seldom perceived. Thus, Er gab mir Briefe zum Lesen, *he gave me letters for reading*—that is, the letters were to serve to gratify the desire of reading; but, Er gab mir Briefe zu lesen, *he gave me letters to read*, implies merely that he wanted me to read the letters; Ich habe nichts zum Schreiben, *I have nothing to write with*;—Ich habe Ihnen nichts zu schreiben, *I have nothing to write to you*; Stoff zum Nachdenken, *matter for reflection*;—der Wunsch nachzudenken, *the wish to reflect*. Not unfrequently, however, this verbal with zum implies an uncommon effect, and is rendered in English by “enough,” with an infinitive, or merely by an adverb; as, eine Hitze zum Ersticken, *a heat enough to suffocate one*; das ist zum Todtlachen, *that is enough to make one die with laughter*; Sie singen zum Entzücken, *you sing delightfully*.

Obs. 3. We have observed before (§ 82, *Obs. 2.*) that the infinitive

after the auxiliary *lassen*, may be used passively, and that it is only from the context that one can know in what sense it must be taken. This is the case also when the infinitive is governed by *sehen*, *to see*, or *hören*, *to hear*; thus, *Ich sah ihn binden*, may mean, *I saw him binding*, or *being bound*; *Ich höre ihn rufen*, *I hear him calling*, or *being called*; *Er hört sich gerne loben*, *he likes to hear himself praised*, or (which sense however is less usual,) *praising*. After the verb *seyn*, *to be*, the infinitive has always a passive import; as, *Er ist zu bedauern*, *he is to be pitied*; *Dieses Pferd ist zu verkaufen*, *this horse is to be sold*; *Diese Stelle ist so zu verstehen*, *this passage is to be understood thus*; *Sie ist nirgends zu finden*, *she is nowhere to be found*.

§ 92. Both participles are frequently used as adjectives, and declined as such; as, *das liebende Kind*, *the loving child*; *das geliebte Kind*, *the beloved child*; *die untergehende Sonne*, *the setting sun*; *die untergegangene Sonne*, *the sun which has set*. (See also the examples at Section 51, *Obs. 5*.) They are, like common adjectives, also used substantively (§ 52); as, *ein Sterbender*, *a dying man*; *die Geliebte*, *the beloved*; *das Auffallende*, *what is striking*; *das Werden*, *what is in the course of formation*; *das Vergangene*, *what is past*. (See also page 105.) That they are also susceptible of the degrees of comparison, has already been noticed. (§ 55, *Obs. 3*.)

The participle present of nearly every verb may be used as a concrete adjective (§ 50), but not as an abstract; that is, it cannot be joined with the verb *seyn*, *to be*. Thus we may say, *das weinende Kind*, *the crying child*; but not *das Kind ist weinend*, *the child is crying*. (See also § 76, *Obs. 3*.) A considerable number, however, have extended their signification, and assumed the nature of common adjectives, denoting a permanent quality, and not a transitory action: these of course, are used in abstract also; as, *Diese Antwort ist befriedigend* (*niederschlagend*), *this answer is satisfactory* (*afflicting*); *Sein Wiß ist beißend*, *his wit is sarcastic*. Thus also *rührend*, *touching*; *reißend*, *rapid*; *rasend*, *raving*; *anmaßend*, *assuming*; which, as well as a great many others that must be learned from practice, are all real adjectives denoting a permanent quality.

The participle present is not used passively (as may partly be seen from § 79, *Obs.* 2.); except when preceded by the particle *zu*, *to*, in which case it has a passive import, with an implication of necessity or possibility; as, *der zu beweisende Satz*, *the proposition to be proved*; *hochzuverehrender Herr*, *highly-to-be-honoured Sir*; *eine leicht zu übersehende Wahrheit*, *a truth easily to be overlooked*.

Obs. The present participle joined with *zu*, it will be perceived, is analogous in its import to the infinitive governed by *seyn* (see § 91, *Obs.* 3.); and indeed some grammarians consider this form merely as an adjective, derived from the infinitive of that construction by the addition of *d* (in the same manner as the adjective *morgend*, *of tomorrow*, is derived from *morgen*, *tomorrow*). It has also this in common with the infinitive, that in its composition with separable particles (§ 89), *zu* is inserted between the separable particle and the participle; as, *der abzuschreibende Brief*, *the letter to be copied*, from *abschreiben*, *to copy*.

We must however observe, that this use of the present participle is rather formal; almost like such English phrases as “the never-to-be-forgotten day,” “this ever-to-be-lamented event;” and therefore rarely occurs in elegant writing, or in colloquial language; and upon the whole, its use is confined generally to compound verbs. It is, moreover, never employed but as a concrete adjective. See page 97.

§ 93. Those past participles which in the conjugation can be combined with the auxiliary *werden* (i. e. those of transitives or of verbs admitting of the passive voice—§ 67), or with the auxiliary *seyn* (i. e. those of neuter verbs denoting a change of place or state—§ 76), may be used as adjectives in the signification which they have in such combination; as, *der abgeschickte Bothe*, *the dispatched messenger*; *die gepflückte Rose*, *the plucked rose*; *das zerbrochene Glas*, *the broken glass*; *der weggelaufene Schuldner*, *the absconded debtor*; *die verwelfte Blume*, *the faded flower*; *das verrostete Eisen*, *the rusted iron*.

Obs. 1. As may be inferred from the above rule, the past participles cannot be used adjectively in the sense they have when combined with the auxiliary *haben*. It must therefore be observed, 1.) That those of transitive verbs cannot be used as adjectives in an active sense (being then conjugated with *haben*); and we may say, *eine auswendig gelernte Rede*, *a speech learned by heart*; *eine gelehrter Mann*, *a learned (lite-*

rally, *a taught*) man; but not *ein gelernter Mann*; for this participle, in reference to a man, can be used only in an active sense. 2.) That those of all such verbs as do not admit in their conjugation any other auxiliary than *haben*—namely, reflective verbs, and such neuter verbs as do not denote a change of state or place—can never be used adjectively.

There are, however, many exceptions to this rule—or, more correctly speaking, many participles have, in their use as adjectives, extended or changed their original signification, and become, as it were, different words from the kindred participles; and their import must therefore be learned from the dictionary. Thus, in the phrases, *eine verdiente Strafe*, *a merited punishment*; *ein verschwiegenes Geheimniß*, *a kept secret*, *verdient* and *verschwiegen* are the participles past of *verdienen*, *to deserve*, and *verschweigen*, *to conceal*, *not to reveal*; but when we say, *ein verdienster*, *ein verschwiegener*, *Mann*, *a deserving*, *a discreet*, *man*, *verdient* and *verschwiegen* are used as adjectives independent of their participial import. Thus also, *ein erfahrener Mann*, *an experienced man* (*i. e.* a man of experience); *ein unüberlegter* (or *unbedachter*) *Mensch*, *an inconsiderate man*; *ein gelehrtes Buch*, *a learned book*; *ein verdrossener*, *unbehelfener Knabe*, *a listless, helpless boy*. Of the same description are all adjectives derived from past participles of reflective verbs, or of neuter verbs conjugated with *haben*; as, *ein Betrunkener*, *a drunken man*; *ein gezeiertes Weib*, *an affected woman*; *ein entschlossener Mensch*, *a resolute man*; *ein verirrttes Lamm*, *a strayed lamb*; *ein Verliebter*, *a man in love* (being derived from the reflective verbs *sich betrinken*, *sich zieren*, &c.); —*ein ausgedienter Soldat*, *a soldier who has served out his time*; *ein verzweifelter Mensch*, *a desperate man*; *ein geschmeicheltes Gemälde*, *a flattering picture* (*ausdienen*, *verzweifeln*, and *schmeicheln* being neuter verbs conjugated with *haben*); and a great many more, which must be learned by practice.

Many other adjectives, with the form of a participle past, are evidently derived from nouns; as, *gestieft und gespornt*, *booted and spurred*; *gesittet*, *civilized*; *gesiebert*, *feathered* (from the substantives *Stiefel*, *Sporn*, *Sitte*, and *Feder*); which forms are quite analogous to such English derivatives as *horned*, *wooded*, *kind-hearted*, &c.

Obs. 2. When dependent on the verb *kommen*, *to come*, the past participles of verbs denoting locomotion are used in the sense of progressive action, like the participle present, and not in their usual import of completed action; as, *Da kommt er gelaufen* (*gesprungen*, *hergefröhen*), *there he comes running* (*leaping*, *sneaking along*).

Another peculiar use of this participle (in which it likewise does not denote completed action) is when employed as a kind of interjectional imperative—similar to such English expressions as *silence!* *away with you!* as, *Platz gemacht!* *make way!* *aufgeschaut!* *mind!* *take care!*

nicht gelärmt! *no noise!* die Hülte abgenommen! *hats off!* On account of its force and animation, this form is often used by poets in lively exhortations: Frisch auf Kameraden! den Kappen gezäumt! *rouse ye, comrades! bridle the steed!*—Schiller.

Obs. 3. We may, lastly, mention also, that the infinitive and participles, when used as verbal nouns, admit of compositions which the verb they are derived from does not. Thus, we say, das Erdbeben, *the earthquake*; das Pferderennen, *the horse-race*; das Andenken, *the remembrance, the keepsake*; die kriegsführenden Mächte, *the belligerent powers*; der machhabende Offizier, *the officer on duty*; ein pflichtvergessener Mensch, *an unprincipled person*; though we have no such compound verbs as andenken, kriegsführen, &c.

THE ADVERB.

§ 94. In the German, as in other languages, there are, comparatively, few original or primitive adverbs; by far the greatest number are derived from other words, chiefly adjectives.

In English, adjectives are changed into adverbs by means of the affix *ly*,—*rich, richly*; in German the uninflected adjective is used adverbially, without undergoing any change; as, Sie ist schön, und schreibt schön, *she is beautiful, and writes beautifully*.—See also § 50, *Obs. 2.*

Obs. 1. The termination *lich*, which, etymologically, is the same with the English *ly*, is used to form adjectives, not only from substantives, (as, täglich, *daily*; freundlich, *friendly*—from Tag, *day*; Freund, *friend*.) but also from other adjectives; as, süßlich, *sweetish*; länglich, *oblong*; kleinlich, *petty*; röthlich, *reddish*; kränzlich, *sickly*; reinlich, *cleanly*; from the adjectives süß, *sweet*; lang, *long*, &c. The learner must therefore not be misled by the English idiom, to suppose such derivatives to be mere adverbs; they are adjectives, and, like other adjectives, they are used in the same form also as adverbs.

There is, however, rather a considerable number of such derivatives in *lich*, which are mere adverbs, and never used as adjectives; as, sicherlich, *surely*; vornehmlich, *particularly*; treulich, *faithfully*; schwerlich, *hardly*; kürzlich, *lately*; gnädiglich, *graciously*; fecklich, *boldly*; inniglich, *sincerely, heartily*; gemeiniglich, *commonly*; bekanntlich, *as is well known*; and many more, which must be left to practice*.

* A few of them are distinguished from their primitive adverbs by referring to the copula, whilst the latter refer to the predicate (see *Obs. 2.*); as, Er handelte weise (flug), *he acted wisely (prudently)*; Er schwieg weislich (flüchtig), *he wisely (prudently) was silent*.

Obs. 2. Adjectives are often made to express an adverbial relation by joining them, in the genitive case, with the feminine substantive *Weise*, *manner, wise*; as, *ungerechter Weise*, (or *ungerechterweise*, as it is often written,) *unjustly*; *unbesonnener Weise*, *inconsiderately*. Such adverbial phrases, however, always relate to the copula, and not to the predicate*; or, more accurately speaking, they modify the circumstances connected with the event, and not the manner of it, the latter being always denoted by the usual adverb; as, *Sie hängte den Spiegel behutsam auf*, *she hung up the glass cautiously*;—*Sie hängte den Spiegel behutsamer Weise auf*, *she, cautiously, hung up the glass*; *Er ist unglücklich verheirathet*, *he is married unhappily*;—*Er ist unglücklicher Weise verheirathet*, *he, unfortunately, is married*; *Er kam glücklich an*, *he arrived safely*;—*Er kam glücklicher Weise an*, *he, fortunately, arrived*. However, when no ambiguity can arise, the simple adverb is frequently used also in reference to the copula; as, *Ich ließ zufällig* (or *zufälliger Weise*) *die Schrift zu Hause*, *I accidentally left the writing at home*.

Obs. 3. We will notice here also the following modes of formation of adverbs:

1. Several adjectives are compounded with *Maßen*, (the plural of *Maße*, *measure*), in the same manner as the compounds with *Weise* just mentioned (*Obs. 2.*); as, *einigermassen* (or *einiger Maßen*), *in some measure*; *folgendermaßen*, *in the following manner*; *abgeregeltermaßen*, *in the manner agreed upon*, &c.

2. *Weise*, *manner*, compounded with other substantives, often forms adverbs; in which it denotes *by way of*, or *by*; as, *versuchsweise*, *by way of trial or experiment*; *tropfenweise*, *by drops*; *kreuzweise*, *cross-wise*; *stückweise*, *by pieces, piecemeal*.

3. The letter *s*, as a derivative termination, is, exclusively, adverbial; and a great many adverbs are formed from a variety of words by annexing this letter *†*; as, *rechts*, *on the right*; *links*, *on the left*; *flugs*, *immediately*; *anfangs*, *at first*; *eilends*, *in haste*; *öfters*, *frequently*; *seitwärts*, *aside*; *ostwärts*, *eastwards*; *allerdings*, *certainly, by all means*; *allerseits*, *from all parts*; *unterwegs*, *on the way*; *gleichfalls*, *likewise*, &c. &c.

§ 95. Not only the positive, but also the comparative and superlative of adjectives are used adverbially, without undergoing any change. The superlative in this case is used

* See note †, page 207.

† The greater part of these adverbs are in fact genitives of nouns,—this case being often used adverbially. (See the use of the genitive in the Syntax.) From analogy, perhaps, this genitive inflection (*s*) was afterwards employed with other words as a mere adverbial annex. Compare this with § 45, *Obs. 2.*

only in the form with *am* (page 109); as, *Sie schreibt schöner als er, und am schönsten von uns allen, she writes more beautifully than he, and the most beautifully of us all.*

With the exception of *oft, often* (see page 110), adverbs that cannot be used also as adjectives have no degrees of comparison. (Indeed, very few of them, by the nature of their import, admit the idea of intension or remission.) The following, therefore, take their comparatives and superlatives from adjectives of a kindred import:

Positive, bald, soon,	Comp. eher,	Superl. am ehesten.
wohl, well,	besser,	am besten.
gern, willingly,	lieber,	am liebsten.

Obs. 1. Some writers compare *bald* regularly—*bälder, am baldesten*.—The positive form of *eher* (*ehe*) is now used only as a conjunction, signifying *before*.—The positive of *lieber* (*lieb*) denotes *dear*, and is never used in the sense of *willingly*.—The adjective *gut, good*, which, as we have seen (page 110), is used as the positive of *besser, best*, is, like other adjectives, employed also adverbially.—See § 98, *Obs. 2.*

Obs. 2. The superlative with *am* always implies, as in the above example, a comparison. (See § 54, *Obs.*) The superlative of eminence is expressed, as with adjectives (§ 56, *Obs. 2.*), by adding some adverb of intension to the positive; as, *Sie schreibt sehr (or außerordentlich) schön, she writes most beautifully*. With many adverbs, however, this may be done also by the superlative taking *e* and being preceded by *aufß* or *auf das*; as, *aufß artigste, most politely; auf das angenehmste, most agreeably*.

The uninflected superlative, too, is sometimes used to express the superlative of eminence; as, *rühmlichst, most laudably, most gloriously; feierlichst, most solemnly; innigst, most heartily; gehorsamst, most obediently, &c. &c.* Particular regard must, however, be had to usage; as neither of the two last-mentioned forms of the superlative is used extensively, especially the uninflected form.

The following superlative forms must be considered as distinct adverbs, having assumed a particular modification of their kindred superlatives:—*jüngst, lately; äußerst, or höchst, extremely, highly; längst, long ago; längstens, at the longest; höchstens, at the utmost; ehestens, or nächstens, one of these days; mindestens, or wenigstens, at least; meistens, for the most part, mostly; spätestens, at the latest; and perhaps a few others.*

Obs. 3. As adverbs denoting degrees of intension, we may notice here,

viel, *much*; sehr, *very*; and gar, *very, exceedingly*.—Viel, before comparatives, and before zu, *too*, answers to the English *much*; as, viel geschwin-der, *much quicker*; viel zu stark, *much too strong*. When modifying a verb it denotes extension in time, but not intenseness; and the English *much* must, in the latter import, be translated by sehr. Thus, *He has suffered much*, may import either that his sufferings were *long*, or that they were *intense*; in the former case, *much* is rendered by viel; in the latter, by sehr. Hence, when joined to a participle past used adjectively—as, *I was much surprised, pleased, offended, &c.*—*much* is always rendered by sehr.

Sehr and gar both denote a high degree of intensity; as, ein sehr—or gar—gelehrter Mann, *a very learned man*. However, gar addresses itself rather to the imagination, implying intensity *beyond what could, or would, be readily conceived*; and is, consequently, not used in cases where the degree of intensity can easily be judged of. Thus, we may say, Das Land ist gar weit von hier, *that country is very (or extremely) far from here*; Die See ist gar tief, *the sea is very deep*; but we should say, Er wohnt sehr (but not gar) nah bei mir, *he lives very near to me*; Dieses Wasser ist sehr (not gar) seicht, *this water is very shallow*. Nor could *very* be rendered by gar in such expressions as, *very fit, very white, very exact*, or in any other phrase expressive of a degree of intensity *readily perceived*.

Gar zu denotes a great degree of excess; as, gar zu viel, *overmuch*; gar zu theuer, *dear beyond all reason*.—See also § 99.

Gar sometimes denotes *even*; in which import it is mostly compounded with so (sogar*); as, Er weinte gar, or sogar, *he even cried*.

ADVERBS OF DIRECTION.

§ 96. In describing motion or direction, the German language carefully distinguishes the direction towards the speaker from the opposite direction—or, more accurately speaking, our viewing a motion in the direction *whence* it comes, from our viewing it in the direction *whither* it goes: the former is expressed by her, *hither*, the latter by hin, *thither*; as,

Von der See her blies der Wind, *from the sea (hither) the wind blew*; Kommt alle zu mir her, *come all hither to me*; den ganzen Weg her, *all the way hither*:—Gehe zu deinem Bruder hin, *go (thither) to your brother*; Sie kamen von Osten her, und zogen nach Westen hin, *they came from the*

* This compound must not be confounded with so gar (written separately), which phrase denotes *so very*; as, Das ist so gar übel nicht, *that is not so very bad*.

East, and went towards the West; Er segelte längs der Küste hin, he sailed along the coast.

Nearly all the words used as separable particles (§§ 89 and 90) may be compounded with *her* or *hin*, in order to denote a motion *to* or *from* the speaker. It must, however, be observed in this respect, that the particles *ab*, *an*, *auf*, *aus*, *ein*, *über*, *um*, *unter*, and *zu*, may be joined with either; *bei*, *nieder*, and *vor*, only with *her*; and *durch* and *weg*, only with *hin* *.

Thus, we should say, *Schicken Sie mir das Papier herauf, (herunter, herein, herüber, &c.), send me up (down, in, over, &c.) the paper; Ich schicke Ihnen das Papier hinauf (hinunter, hinein, hinüber, &c.), I send you up (down, in, over, &c.) the paper; Kommen Sie herbei, come near (hither); das ganze Thal hindurch†, all the valley through; hinweg† von hier! away from here.*—See also the examples at page 224.

In the preceding compounds *her* and *hin* form the first component part, in most others they form the second.—See *Obs. 3*, and the Table, page 224.

Obs. 1. In narrating events at which we were not present, *her* and *hin* are used with reference to the spot from which we, in mind, view the event. Thus, we should say, *Ein Matrose fiel vom Mast herab, und wäre in den Schiffsraum hinab gefallen, wenn, &c., a sailor fell (down) from the mast, and would have fallen (down) into the hold, if, &c.*; for though the narrator had not been present at the event, he would in mind identify himself with the spectators of it on the deck‡, who viewed the fall from the mast in the direction towards them, and that into the hold, in the direction away from them.

Obs. 2. As *her* and *hin*, by the nature of their import, relate only to specified locality, they bear, in such cases as the above compounds, some analogy to a definitive, inasmuch as they refer the indefinite local direction, denoted by the second component, to a definite place. Thus, *Sehen Sie nicht aus*, denotes, *do not go out* (i. e. *stay at home*); but *Sehen Sie nicht hinaus*, signifies, *do not go out of the room (where the speaker is)*;

* The dictionaries have also the compound *herdurch*, which is now hardly ever used.

† Very frequently the simple particles (*durch* and *weg*) are now used instead of these compounds.

The adverb *hinwég* must not be confounded with the substantive *Hinweg*, *the way thither*: the former, like most compound adverbs (§ 18), has the accent on the last component part, the latter on the first.

‡ Compare this with note p. 132.

Berg auf, *up-hill*; —den Berg hinauf, *up the hill*. Except in a few figurative expressions, in which the locality remains indefinite; as, heraus fordern, *to challenge*; sich herab lassen, *to condescend*, &c.

Obs. 3. With regard to the import of *her* and *hin*, we add the following remarks:—1.) *Her* is used in the sense of *along* when referring, not, as usual, to the place whither an object moves, but to the position of one object with regard to another object moving in the same direction; as, Wir trieben den Feind vor uns her, *we drove the enemy along before us*; Seine Schuldner sind immer hinter ihm her, *his creditors are always at his heels*; Er lief neben dem Wagen her, *he ran along at the side of the carriage*. 2.) *Hin* is sometimes used in the sense of *down*, and sometimes in that of *lost* or *gone*; as, Lege es hin, *lay it down*; Meine Ruhe ist hin, *my peace is gone*; hin ist hin, *what is lost is lost*. 3.) The expression *hin* und *her* (or *hin* und *wieder*) is often used in the sense of *here and there*; also in that of *to and fro*. 4.) When applied to time, *her* is used in reference to past time continued to the present moment; but the course or extent of time not limited by the present moment is denoted by *hin*; as, einige Tage her, *for some days past*; es ist nicht lange her, *it is not long since*; bisher, *hitherto*; —Auf viele Jahre hin war sein Glück zerstört, *his happiness was destroyed for many years*; künftig hin, *in future*; sein Bruder, der bis dahin geschwiegen hatte, &c., *his brother, who till then had remained silent*, &c. 5.) These particles generally change their usual meaning when annexed (seldom when prefixed) to prepositions; as, vorhin, *just now*; seither, *latterly*; nachher (or hernach), *afterwards*; vorher, *before*; umher, *about* (different from herum, which denotes round*); ohnehin, *besides*; and several others, which must be learned from the dictionary.

The above adverbs imply motion or direction towards a place; several of these have corresponding adverbs denoting locality without any reference to direction or motion,—that is, they denote the mere scene of an action or state, and bear the same analogy to the former adverbs as in English *in* bears to *into*; as will be seen from the following Table of them:—

* If *round* implies an inclosing on all sides, it is rendered by herum only; otherwise hinum or herum is used, according as the motion is viewed by the speaker; as, Gehe um die Ecke hinum, da ist die Hausthür, *go round the corner, the house-door is there*; Er wird gleich um die Ecke herum kommen, *he will come directly round the corner*.

The relation <i>in</i> .	The relation <i>into</i> .
wo, <i>where</i> ;	wohin, <i>whither</i> .
hier, <i>here</i> ;	her or hierher, <i>hither</i> .
da, } <i>there</i> (see p. 133) ;	dahin, dorthin, } <i>thither</i> .
dort, }	or merely hin, }
* außen, draußen, <i>without</i> ;	heraus, hinaus, <i>out</i> .
* innen, drinnen, <i>within</i> ;	herein, hinein, <i>in</i> .
* oben, droben, <i>above</i> ;	herauf, hinauf, <i>up</i> .
* unten, drunten, <i>below</i> ;	herunter, hinunter, } <i>down</i> .
vorn, <i>in the front or forepart</i> ;	herab, hinab, }
hinten, <i>behind</i> ;	hervor, <i>forth</i> .
† drüben, <i>on the other side</i> ;	hinter †, <i>down, back</i> .
	hinüber, <i>over</i> .

Examples.

Wo ist er? *where is he*?—Wohin schickten Sie ihn? or wo schickten Sie ihn hin? *whither did you send him*? Dort (or da) reitet er, *there he rides*;—Dorthin (dahin) ritt er, or Dort (da) ritt er hin §, *that way he rode*; Ich gehe in den Garten; meine Schwester ging so eben hin (not dort), *she expects me there*; Die erwartete mich dort, *I am going into the garden*; my sister went there just now, she expects me there; Der Junge ist oben, gehe hinauf und sage ihm herunter (herab) zu kommen, *the boy is above, go up and tell him to come down*; Geh hinunter (hinab) und sieh wer unten ist, *go down and see who is below*; Wer ist draußen vor der Thür? *who is outside the door*? Geh nicht hinein, es ist niemand drinnen, *do not go in, there is no one within*; Das Haus ist vorn neu und hinten alt, *the house is new in front and old at back*.

Obs. 4. We add the following remarks:—

1.) The adverbs wo, da, and hier, have, like the corresponding particles in English, analogous adverbs denoting the origin of a motion;—which are, however, in German always preceded by the preposition von, *from*,—namely, von wannen, *whence*; von dannen, *from thence*; von hinnen,

* These compounds are contractions of dar außen, *there without*, dar innen, &c., and are therefore distinguished from their primitives, außen, innen, &c., both by being more demonstrative (implying a pointing, as it were, at the place), and by precluding the presence of the speaker.

† This word is hardly ever used in good German as an adverb, but only as a preposition denoting *behind*.

‡ The primitive, üben, is obsolete. In homely language one also uses hüten, *this side*; and haussen (for hier außen), *here without*.

§ Her and hin are, as in the above examples, often separated when compounded with wo, da, dort, or hier, and other words are inserted between. Some authors then join hin and her with the verb in all those cases where the separable particles would be joined with it (§ 89); as, Wo haben Sie ihn hingeschickt (for hin geschickt)? *where have you sent him to*? Wo soll ich es hernehmen (for her nehmen)? *where shall I take it from*?

hence; as, Von wannen (or woher) kommen Sie? *whence* (or *from where*) do you come? Gehe von hinnen, *go hence*, &c.

2.) The difference between *offen*, *open*, and the separable particle *auf* (§ 89) when signifying *open*, bears some analogy to that of *oben* and *hinauf*; namely, *offen* denotes the mere state, whilst *auf* refers to the effecting of that state; as, Ich fand die Thür offen, *I found the door open*;—Ich brach die Thür auf, *I broke the door open*. An analogous difference exists between *da*, *there*, and the separable particle *dar*, *there, forth*; and between *dahem*, *at home*, and the separable particle *heim*, *home* (see § 89, Obs. 4.); *da* and *dahem* implying *rest*, *dar* and *heim* *motion*, or *direction to*; as, *da* stehen, or *dastehen*, *to stand there*; *daß* *Daseyn*, *the existence*; *dahem* *sitzen*, *to sit at home*;—*darstellen*, *to put forth, exhibit*; *heimkehren*, *to return home*.

Lastly, we may remark here, that *wo* and *da* are used also in reference to time, the former in the sense of *when*, the latter in the sense both of *when* and *then*; as, Zu einer Zeit wo (or da) ich glaubte, &c., *at a time when I thought*, &c.; Er gab ein Zeichen, da öffnete sich eine Thür, und, &c., *he gave a sign, when (or and then) a door opened, and*, &c. Like several other adverbs, *wo* and *da* are used also as conjunctions—which see.

ADVERBS OF TIME.

§ 97. Of this class we shall notice only the following adverbs:

*Dann** and *damals*, *then*.—The former implies a sequel to another event, and may refer both to past and future time; the latter refers to definite past time only; as, Er wird es einst bereuen, aber dann (not *damals*) wird es zu spät seyn, *he will repent it one day, but then it will be too late*; Er wartete bis sie kam, dann ging er weg, *he waited until she came, and then he went away*; Ich war damals noch ein Kind, *I was then yet a child*.

Wann, *when*, is used in reference to an unknown part of time; as, Wann wird er kommen? *when will he come?*

Wenn, which was formerly employed also in the sense of *wann*, is now, more generally, employed only as a conjunction denoting *if*, or *when*.—See the Conjunctions †.

* This word must not be confounded with *denn*, which will be explained among the Conjunctions.

† Adelung, indeed, considers the form *wann* as a mere provincial peculiarity; and asserts that, except in the phrase *dann und wann*, *now and then*, *wenn* is the only correct form, whether used as an adverb or conjunction. However, recent usage has confined *wenn* more to the conjunctive import.

Je, jemals, and immer, ever.—*Je* and *jemals* denote *ever, at any one point of time*; and *immer, ever, always*; as, *Haben Sie ihn je (or jemals) gesehen?* *have you ever seen him?* *auf immer, for ever.* *Immer* (like *toujours* in French) is used also in the sense of *safely, without hesitation*; as, *Sie können das immer thun, you may safely do that*; *Wagen Sie es immer, venture it without hesitation.*

The negatives of the preceding adverbs are, *nie, niemals, and nimmer, never, at no time.*—See § 99.

Obs. 1. When the English *ever* denotes merely an unlimited degree of intension or extent, and not time, it is rendered variously in German; namely, when compounded or joined with any of those words which may be used also as interrogatives (in which case *ever* may be preceded by *so*; as, *whoever* or *whosoever, whenever, wherever, &c.*) it is translated by *auch*, or *immer*, or by both these words; as, *Whoever he may be, wer er auch (or wer er immer, or wer er auch immer) seyn mag; How rich soever you may be, so reich Sie auch immer seyn mögen.* It is in such cases sometimes rendered also by *nur* or *nur immer*; as, *Wherever I come, wo ich nur (or nur immer) hin komme.* But more generally *nur*, in such instances, answers to the English *as ever*, implying the utmost degree *possible**; as, *So geschwind ich nur konnte, as quickly as ever I could*; *So viel Sie nur immer wollen, as much as ever you like.*

Ever so is mostly rendered by *noch so*, or *auch noch so*; as, *Let him be ever so learned, er mag noch so (or auch noch so) gelehrt seyn*; *If I rise ever so early, wenn ich auch noch so früh aufstehe.*

Einmal, einst, once.—The former, like the corresponding *once* in English, is used both as a numeral (see § 56, *Obs. 2.*) and as an adverb of time, equivalent to *einst, once, at some particular time*; as, *Ich werde ihn einmal (or einst) wieder sehen, I shall see him one day again*; *Es war einmal ein König, there was once a king.*

Obs. 2. *Einmal* has several other significations:—1.) *for once, or contrary to the habitual way*; and when preceded by *wieder*, it implies the happening *after a long interval*; as, *Er ist heute einmal sehr gesprächig, he is today, for once, very talkative*;—*wieder einmal* would imply, that he has been so *occasionally* before. 2.) *at last*; in which import it is frequently preceded by *endlich*; as, *Schweigen Sie doch einmal,*

* In some other cases, too, *nur* imports *possibly*; as, *Wie können Sie nur so grausam seyn? how can you possibly be so cruel?*

now do be silent; Werden Sie einmal aufhören? *will you at length (or ever) cease?* Kommst du endlich einmal? *do you come at last?* 3.) *Just, merely*; as, Laufe einmal zum Nachbar hinüber, *just run over to the neighbour.* 4.) It implies that *arguing is of no use*, or that *affairs can no more be changed*; in which import it is generally preceded by *nun*; as, Daß ist einmal (or *nun einmal*) vorbei, *that is now past [and cannot be helped]*; Er ist nun einmal Ihr Bruder, *he is your brother [and so you must make the best of it]*.—Nicht einmal often denotes *not so much as*; as, Er kann nicht einmal lesen, *he cannot so much as read.*

The adverbs *jetzt*, *nun*, *nunmehr*, and *gegenwärtig*, all denote present time. The first two are in many instances used indiscriminately; as, Daß ist jetzt (or *nun*) die Mode, *this is now the fashion*; Er könnte nun (or *jetzt*) schon hier seyn, *he might be here by this time.* However, when implying an expected change, or ceasing of the present state, *jetzt* alone is used. On the other hand, when the present state, or event, is considered as the consequence of that preceding it, *nun* seems preferable; as,

Für jetzt (not *nun*) mag es genug seyn, *for the present it may be enough*; Komm in einer Stunde wieder, ich bin jetzt beschäftigt, *come again an hour hence, I am engaged now*; Bis jetzt habe ich geschwiegen, aber nun darf ich es nicht länger, *I have been silent till now, but I must no longer be so*; Sie wollten nicht hören, nun müssen Sie dafür leiden, *you would not hear, now you must suffer for it* *.

Obs. 3. When the English *now* is used as a connective, (for instance, "If this be true, he is guilty; *now* this is true," &c.; or, "*Now* there lived in the same town a man who," &c.) it must be rendered by *nun* exclusively.

Nun answers to the English *well* in such expressions as *Nun, so sey es, well, be it then*; *nun, nun! well, well!*—In its connective import, *nun* is often placed in the middle of a phrase, and is then not translated in English; as, Als ich ihm daß nun so zeigen wollte, sprang er auf, (*well or now*) *when I was going to show him that, he jumped up.*

Nunmehr, which compound is not frequently used, denotes present time as distinct from the past, and as con-

* Present time may be considered either as the end of past time, and, consequently, as distinct from the future only; or as the beginning of the future, and distinct only from the past. In the above discrimination, *nun* appears to imply the latter, *jetzt* the former, description of present time. This view receives some corroboration from the fact, that the English *yet* (etymologically the same word with *jetzt*) denotes a continuation of a previous state, with the implied expectation of that state being changed.

tinuing for some time after *; as, *Das ist nunmehr völlig aus der Mode, that is now quite out of fashion*; *Was hab' ich nunmehr zu hoffen? what have I now (henceforth) to hope?*

Gegenwärtig, *at present*, implies an extended portion of time, and is therefore not used in reference to the present moment merely. Thus, we may say, *Er lebt gegenwärtig* (or *jetzt*) *auf dem Lande, he lives at present in the country*;—but we must say, *Es ist jetzt* (not *gegenwärtig*) *Mittag, it is now noon*. *Gegenwärtig* is always used in reference to *actually* present time, and cannot be joined with past tenses; though *jetzt*, *nun*, and *nunmehr* may. Thus, in narrative we may say, *Jetzt* (or *nun*, but not *gegenwärtig*) *kam die Reihe an mich, now came my turn*†.

Erst, *schon*, *noch*.—*Erst* denotes *first*; *schon*, *already*; and *noch*, *still*, *yet*, or *as yet*:—

Hören Sie mich erst an, *first hear me*; *Es ist schon geschehen, it is already done*; *Zweifeln Sie noch* (noch immer)? *do you still* (even yet) *doubt?* *Noch weiß er nichts davon, as yet he knows nothing of it*.

These adverbs have, however, several other meanings:—*Erst* denotes also *not till*, *only* or *but*; in which sense it is the counterpart of *schon*, which often signifies *as early as*, *as far back as*, or *even* (*as early as*); as,

Ich werde morgen erst abreisen, I shall not depart till tomorrow; *Ich werde morgen schon abreisen, I shall depart as early as tomorrow*; *Sie kam vorgestern schon zurück, meine Nichte erst heute, she returned (as early as) the day before yesterday, my niece only today*; *Er zeigte als Knabe schon vielen Muth, he showed great courage even as a boy*; *Diese Kunst war schon im neunten Jahrhundert bekannt, this art was known even* (or *as far back as*) *in the ninth century*.

Noch often implies *before the end* or *conclusion*, and is rendered by *yet*, *even*, or *at length*; but sometimes it cannot be translated into English; as,

Sie müssen den Brief noch abschreiben, you must yet copy the letter (i. e. before you have done with it); *Ich muß heute noch einen Voten*

* This compound import is expressed by the component parts of *nunmehr*;—*nun* denoting the present as the beginning of the following time (see the preceding note), and *mehr* its protraction.

† The use of these adverbs with past tenses is analogous to that of the present tense for past events.—See *Obs.* p. 152.

abschicken, *I must dispatch a messenger today—or this very day* (in the latter import heute has the verbal accent, from its implying a kind of antithesis *); Sie werden noch alles verrathen, *you will at last betray everything*; Nach dem Abendessen kam Ihr Vetter noch hin, und wir spielten noch Whist, *after supper your cousin came there, and we played at whist*.—In the last two clauses noch implies *before we broke up, or in the course of the evening*.

Obs. 4. These adverbs are frequently used in German, when in English the modification conveyed by them is thought unnecessary to be expressed. Thus very often schon and its negative noch nicht, *not yet*, do not imply any unusual earliness or lateness of the occurrence, but merely that the event had been expected; in which case these adverbs remain untranslated in English; as, Briefe aus Ungarn vom ersten Mai melden, daß der Kaiser schon (or noch nicht) nach Wien zurück gefehrt sey, *letters from Hungary of the 1st of May state that the emperor had (or had not) returned to Vienna*,—where schon and noch nicht imply merely that his return had been expected. Thus also in questions where schon is, however, rendered by *yet*; as, Haben Sie Ihre Pferde schon verkauft? *have you sold your horses yet?* in which sentence schon, as well as the corresponding word *yet*, unless pronounced emphatically, merely imply that the horses were to be sold.

In the same manner noch often implies that an action or state is a continuation; as, Ich werde die nächste Woche noch hier bleiben, *I shall remain here another week*,—implying that I had already been staying some time.

Erst, in the sense of *first*, is likewise often without an equivalent in English; as, Er besann sich nicht erst lange, *he did not long deliberate*.

Obs. 5. We add the following remarks regarding some other meanings of the above adverbs:—

1. Erst and noch form often a kind of connective; erst denoting *as yet only*, or *no more, no further*, and implying that others or more are to follow †; whilst noch, on the other hand, implies *addition* to what has preceded ‡, and is rendered by *more, others, further, or moreover*; as, Ich habe erst zwei Briefe geschrieben, ich muß wenigstens noch drei schreiben, *I have written (as yet) only two letters, I must write at least three more*; Sie haben erst das Aeußere gesehen, nun will ich Ihnen noch das Innere

* The phrase noch einen Boten may further signify also *another messenger* (see the first remark of Obs. 5.); but then noch has the verbal accent.

† By this implication erst seems to retain something of its ordinal import, and is thereby distinguished from nur, which is merely restrictive; as, Da ich nicht Zeit hatte, so schrieb ich nur (not erst) zwei Briefe, *as I had no time I wrote only two letters*.

‡ Probably because continuation, the proper import of noch, involves addition.

zeigen, you have (as yet) seen only the exterior, now I will show you the interior also; Wir sind erst am Fuße des Berges, we are only (no further than) at the foot of the mountain; Er zahlte alles, und dankte uns noch, he paid for everything, and thanked us besides; noch einmal, once more.

2. Erst and noch are sometimes indiscriminately used in the sense of *as lately as, or it was but*; as, Ich sah ihn noch (or erst) gestern, it was but yesterday that I saw him. However, if implying the idea of *not before that time*, erst exclusively must be used.

3. Erst and schon are sometimes used as a kind of comparative,—a comparing the effect of a lesser cause with that of one more powerful,—schon implying the former, erst the latter; as, Schon der Säulengang erregte meine Bewunderung; aber wie erstaunte ich erst, als ich in den Tempel trat, even the colonnade had excited my admiration; but how astonished was I when I entered the temple; Wenn Sie sich schon beschweren, was soll ich erst sagen, if even you complain, what shall I say,—i. e. how much more have I reason to do so.

4. In reference to an hypothesis, erst answers to *once*; as, Wenn ich erst meine Schulden bezahlt habe, dann will ich mich freuen, when I have once paid my debts, I shall rejoice.

5. Schon often implies that there is no occasion for any uneasiness or impatience, or for any interference; and may be rendered in English by *never mind, or leave it alone*, or by some similar phrase; as, Sie wird schon kommen, she will come, never mind, or depend upon it; Er wird sich schon helfen, he will help himself, leave him alone for that. Thus also, a person who is impatiently called would answer, Ich komme schon, I am coming,—implying, you need not call any more. So also schon gut, very well (you need not say anything further about it).

6. Not unfrequently noch is used in stating collateral circumstances, in order to bring to a person's recollection something which he had forgotten. Thus, for instance, in order to bring to a person's recollection that a book had been returned to him, one would say, Sie wollten noch eben ausgehen, als ich Ihnen das Buch brachte, you were just going out when I brought you the book.

§ 98. The adverbs *wohl, ja, and doch* deserve particular notice, from their implying several minute shades of modification; which, in some instances, can be rendered in English only by very homely expressions:—

Wohl, well, (see *Obs. 2.*) frequently implies uncertainty, doubt, or conjecture, and may be rendered in English by *I dare say, perhaps*; and in questions, by *I wonder* *; as,

* In questions *wohl* refers to the answer expected,—implying, that this can be but mere conjecture.

Er ist wohl nicht zu Hause, *he is, I dare say, not at home* ;
 Er ist nicht so dumm als Sie wohl glauben, *he is not so stupid
 as you perhaps think him to be* ; Was mag wohl in diesem
 Kästchen seyn? *what may be in this sasket, I wonder?*

Obs. 1. At the beginning of a sentence, or when opposed to a clause beginning with *aber*, *but*, *wohl* denotes *to be sure*, or *indeed* ; as, *Wohl hat sie Recht, wenn sie sagt, daß, &c., to be sure she is right in saying that, &c.* ; *Es ist wohl theuer, aber gut, it is indeed dear, but good.*—In the expression, *ich möchte wohl, I should like*, *wohl* implies that it is an idle or hopeless wish ; as, *Ich möchte wohl ein König seyn, I should like to be a king.*

Obs. 2. Like most adjectives, *gut*, *good*, is used also adverbially ; so that the English adverb *well* may, in a great many instances, be rendered indifferently by *gut* or *wohl* ; as, *Das klingt gut (or wohl), this sounds well* ; *Er hat sich gut (or wohl) betragen, he has behaved well* ; *Das steht ihm wohl (or gut), that fits him well* ; *Es ist ihm wohl (or gut) gelungen, he has succeeded well.* Yet, in most instances, one or the other is preferred by usage. Thus, when referring to skill, *gut* is used exclusively ; as, *Er schreibt, lernt, tanzt, &c., sehr gut, he writes, learns, dances, &c., very well.* On the other hand, *wohl* alone is used when referring to our health, feelings, or sensations ; as, *Mir ist nicht wohl (not gut), I am not well* ; *Er befindet sich wohl, he is well* ; *Leben Sie wohl ! farewell ! Das thut mir wohl, that does me good.* In most other cases, however, it must be learnt from practice which of the two is more in use.

The affirmative particle *ja* (§ 99.) denotes sometimes *ay, yea* ; and, in imperatives, *be sure* ; as,

Viele Häuser, ja ganze Straßen, brannten, many houses, nay whole streets, were on fire ; *Kommen Sie ja früh, be sure to come early.*

Very frequently, however, it has a conjunctional import, implying that one proposition is an *obvious* cause, motive, or proof, of another ; and may be rendered by *you know, you see, or surely* ; as,

Mir dürfen Sie es sagen, ich bin ja Ihr Freund, to me you may tell it, I am, you know, your friend ; *Warten Sie noch, Sie sehen ja daß es regnet, wait yet a while, you see surely (or do you not see) that it rains* ; *Er muß krank seyn, er sieht ja sehr blaß aus, he must be ill, he looks very pale you see.*

Sometimes *ja* denotes surprise ; or rather, it refers to an unknown cause, which we wish to learn ; as, *Sie sind ja heute sehr lustig, why, you are uncommonly merry today !*

Doch, yet, nevertheless *; that is, contrary to what might have been supposed from the preceding proposition; as, *Sie haben es ihm versprochen, und doch geben Sie es ihm nicht, you have promised it him, and yet you do not give it to him.*

If one of such contradictory propositions is put either imperatively or interrogatively, *doch*, which is then joined with the other, is rendered by *you know*, or *surely*; as, *Geben Sie ihm daß, (or warum geben Sie ihm daß nicht?) Sie haben es ihm doch (or ja,—see above) versprochen, give it to him, (or why do you not give it to him?) you know you have promised it him.* Hence *doch* often implies merely surprise,—or, in other words, that something is contrary to custom and the habitual way, and is rendered by *to be sure*, or *surely*; as, *Wie diese Leute doch grob sind, how rude these people are, to be sure* †.

It is, however, more generally used either to denote solicitude or curiosity, or to strengthen expressions of that nature; and may often be rendered by some such expression as, *I pray, I hope, I wish, I wonder, surely, &c.*; as,

Warten Sie doch, wait, I pray; Er war doch nicht böse, he was not angry, I hope; Hätte ich doch geschwiegen! would I had been silent! Hätten Sie es ihm doch gegeben, I wish you had given it him; Ich habe den Mann doch irgend wo gesehen, I have surely seen that man somewhere; Was wollte ich doch sagen? what was I going to say, I wonder; Sie wissen doch, daß, &c., you know, I suppose (or surely), that, &c.; Ich möchte doch wissen, wer er ist, I should much like to know who he is.

Obs. The particles *doch* and *wohl* are frequently combined without denoting more than what one or the other of them would singly signify, so that one of them may be considered as an expletive; as, *Sie werden doch wohl Ihren Bruder kennen, you will surely know your brother; Das ist doch wohl nur Scherz, that is only joke, I dare say.* In other instances each particle has its appropriate meaning; as, *Er ist reich, aber doch wohl geizig, he is rich, but yet avaricious, I dare say.* These particles are often, either conjointly or singly, connected with others; espe-

* In this sense it is considered as a conjunction.—See the classification of the Conjunctions.

† To render the expression more emphatic, the verb is in such cases often placed at the beginning; as, *Habe ich doch nie so etwas gesehen, I certainly never saw anything like that.*

cially with *nun*, *gar*, *ja*, *auch*, or *denn* *; each of which, however, retains its particular import; as, *Für wen ich Sie halte*, fragen Sie; *nun*, doch wohl für meinen Oheim, *you ask for whom I take you*; *why*, for my uncle, *to be sure*; *Er kann mir ja doch nicht helfen*, for all that, *he cannot help me, you know*; *Sie werden mich doch wohl nicht gar beneiden*, *you will, surely, not go so far as to envy me*; *Durch das Fenster kann er denn doch auch nicht herein gekommen seyn*, *yet, he surely cannot have entered through the window either*.

§ 99. We shall conclude our account of the adverbs by noticing several particles and phrases denoting affirmation and negation.

These denote affirmation or consent:—

Ja, *yes*; *ja wohl*, *certainly*; *ja doch*, *yes, yes* (implying often some impatience); *ganz recht*, *exactly*; *gewiß*, or *ganz gewiß*, *undoubtedly*, or *decidedly*; *freilich*, or *allerdings*, *to be sure, by all means*; *nun ja*, or *nun gut*, *well then, be it so*; *meinetwegen*, or *meinethalben*, or *ich bin es zufrieden*, *I have no objection*; *nur zu*, *go on, never mind*; *immerhin*, *let it be so*.

The following express negation:—

Rein, *no* (*kein* is the definitive *no*,—see p. 57); *nicht*, *not*; *dem ist nicht so*, *that is not the case*; *nicht doch*, *not so, you labour under an error*; *daß eben nicht*, *not exactly that, not just so*; *gar nicht*, *not at all*; *gar nichts*, *nothing at all*; *gar keiner*, *no one whatever*; *nicht gar*, *not very*,—as, *nicht gar viel*, *not very much*; *warum nicht gar*, *psha! nonsense! keinesweges*, or *mit Nichten*, *by no means*; *ja nicht*, *be sure not*; *bei Leibe nicht*, or *durchaus nicht*, *absolutely not, by no means*; *nie*, *niemals*, or *nimmer* †, *never*; *nun und nimmermehr*, *on no account, nothing shall induce (me, &c.)*,—as, *Daß thue ich nun und nimmermehr*, *nothing on earth shall induce me to do that*; *nichts weniger als*, *far from, anything but*,—as, *Er ist nichts weniger als gelehrt*, *he is anything but learned*.

Obs. 1. In interjectional phrases beginning with interrogative words; *nicht* is often employed to denote emphasis, or mere surprise, and not negation; as, *Wie habe ich ihn nicht gebeten!* *how earnestly have I not entreated him!* *Was habe ich nicht alles für ihn gethan!* *what have I not done for him!* *Was er nicht alles gelernt hat!* *what an infinity of things he has learned!* *Was Sie nicht sagen!* *you surprise me!* or, *you do not say so!*

Obs. 2. With respect to two negatives, the same rule obtains as in

* For the import of *auch* and *denn* see the Conjunctions.

† *Nimmer* is going out of use.

English; namely, two negatives convey an affirmative sense; *Es war niemand dort, der sie nicht bedauerte, there was nobody there who did not pity her*; *Dieses war keinem von uns ganz unerwartet, this was not quite unexpected to any of us*. We find, however, the best authors often violating this rule, and using two negatives for a negation *.

Most prepositions are used also adverbially; for which see § 107.

THE PREPOSITION.

§ 100. The German prepositions are generally divided into four classes, according to the cases they govern:— 1.) Those with the *Genitive*; 2.) those with the *Dative*; 3.) those with the *Accusative*; and 4.) those with the *Dative* and the *Accusative*, according to their import. Those which govern the genitive are, with a very few exceptions, nouns or derivatives of nouns, as may be supposed from the English translation annexed to them. They require therefore the genitive, like any noun that governs another signifying a different thing. The prepositions of the other classes are mostly particles denoting, primarily, relations of place; and, figuratively, several other relations.

With regard to the cases which the various local relations and their figurative use require, it may in general be observed, that the relations of origin (motion from) or beginning, of concomitancy, and of scene (i. e. where a thing is or acts), require the dative; those of aim or end (motion to) require the accusative; except *nach* and *zu*, which govern the dative.

We subjoin now the several lists generally given by German grammarians; adding some examples to each list. We shall, however, resume (§ 105 *seqq.*) the consideration of those denoting various relations, and explain in detail both their prepositional and their adverbial import; as most of these are used also adverbially.

[The dash (—), which is here annexed to some prepo-

* Indeed this rule seems to be of modern origin. In Old German, as well as in Anglo-Saxon, two negatives did not affirm, but strengthened the negation.—See Grimm's *Deutsche Grammatik*, vol. iii.

sitions, indicates the place of the noun governed by the preposition (see, for instance, the examples of *anstatt*, *halber*, and *wegen*); all those not marked by a dash must precede their case.]

§ 101. Prepositions governing the Genitive;—

<i>anstatt</i> , or <i>an—statt</i> , or <i>statt</i> , <i>instead of</i> .	<i>laut</i> , according to (<i>the contents of</i>).
<i>dieſſeits</i> , on this side of.	<i>mitteltſt</i> , or <i>vermitteltſt</i> , by means of.
<i>jenſeits</i> , on the other side of.	<i>troß</i> , in spite, or in defiance, of (see <i>Obs.</i> below).
— <i>halben</i> , or — <i>halber</i> *, on account of, for the sake of.	<i>ungeachtet</i> , or — <i>ungeachtet</i> , notwithstanding.
<i>außerhalb</i> , on the outside of.	<i>unweit</i> , or <i>unfern</i> , not far from.
<i>innerhalb</i> , inside, within the limits of.	<i>vermöge</i> , by dint, virtue, or the power of, according to.
<i>oberhalb</i> , above, on the upper side of.	<i>während</i> , during.
<i>unterhalb</i> , below, on the lower side of.	<i>wegen</i> , or — <i>wegen</i> , on account of.
<i>kraft</i> , by virtue, or by the power, of.	<i>um—willen</i> , for the sake of.
<i>längs</i> , along (see <i>Obs.</i> below).	<i>zufolge</i> , according, or pursuant, to (see <i>Obs.</i> below).

Examples.

Anstatt (or *statt*) *deſ Vaters*, or *an deſ Vaters ſtatt*, *instead of the father*; *dieſſeits deſ Bergeſ*, *on this side of the mountain*; *wegen deſ Geldeſ*, or *deſ Geldeſ wegen* (or *halben*), *for the sake of money*; *um deſ Himmeltſ willen*, *for heaven's sake*; *um ſeinetwillen*, or *ſeinetthalben* †, (see p. 122.) *for his sake*; *außerhalb der Stadt*, *outside of the town* (see

* If the case governed is without any definitive, *halber* is, according to grammarians, preferable; otherwise *halben* is used; as, *Altereſ halber*, *on account of old age*; *ſeineſ Alterſ halben*, *on account of his old age*.

† In familiar language we sometimes find the genitive of the pronoun *der* (i. e. *deſſen* and *deren*—§ 65) compounded in the same manner; as, *deſſenthalb* or *um deſſentwillen*, *derentwegen* or *derenthalb*, &c., *for whose sake*,—instead of *deſſen halben* or *um deſſen willen*, *deren wegen*, &c.; which latter phrases are alone considered as correct by most grammarians. These compounds must, however, not be confounded with the demonstrative terms *deſhalb*, *deſwegen* or *deſhalb*, *on this (or that) account* which, like *weſwegen* and *weſhalb*, *on which account*, are quite current.

§ 102, *Obs.*); innerhalb dieses Kreises; *within this circle*; Die Themse ergießt sich sechzig englische Meilen unterhalb der Hauptstadt in die See, *the Thames falls into the sea sixty miles below the Metropolis*; Er ist kraft seines Amtes dazu befugt, *he is authorized to it by virtue of his office*; vermöge eines Vertrages, *by virtue of (or according to) an agreement*; ungeachtet des schlechten Wetters, or des schlechten Wetters ungeachtet, *notwithstanding the bad weather*; unweit eines Dorfes, *not far from a village*; während des Krieges, *during the war*.

Obs. The three prepositions längs, trotz, and zufolge, may be used indifferently with the genitive or dative case; only that zufolge must, with the genitive, precede its case, and with the dative follow it; as, längs des Flusses, or längs dem Flusse, *along the river*; trotz des Sturms, or trotz dem Sturm, *in spite of the storm*; zufolge Ihres Auftrages, or Ihrem Auftrage zufolge, *according to your commission*.—Instead of längs, entlang is sometimes used with the same cases, and by some authors even with the accusative; with the latter case, however, and generally also with the dative, it follows its case; as, entlang des Gebirges, *along the mountains*; dem (or den) Wald entlang, *along the forest*.

§ 102. Prepositions governing the Dative:—

aus, <i>out of; from</i> .	nach, <i>to, towards; after, for; according to</i> .
außer, <i>out of, or without (the limits or reach of); besides</i> .	nächst, <i>next to</i> .
bei, <i>near or close to, at, by; with</i> .	nebst, } <i>together with</i> .
binnen, <i>within (in reference to time only)</i> .	sammt, }
—entgegen, <i>opposed to</i> .	ob, <i>on account of; over (only in poetry)</i> .
—gegenüber, or gegen—über, <i>opposite to</i> .	seit, <i>since; during</i> .
mit, <i>with</i> .	von, <i>from; of; by</i> .
	zu, <i>to; for</i> .
	—zuwider, <i>against, contrary to</i> .

(See also the last observation.)

Examples.

Er kommt aus dem Walde, und gehet nach jenem Dorfe, *he comes out of the forest, and goes to that village*; nach nächster Woche, *after next week*; Ich reise heute nach der Küste ab, *I depart today for the coast*; die Straße von diesem Orte nach Oxford, *the road from this place to Oxford*; Sie war bei ihrem Bruder, *she was at her brother's*; Ich gehe eben zu meinem Oheim, *I am just going to my uncle*; Ich bin schon seit dem ersten Mai hier, und werde binnen drei Tagen mit meinem Bruder abreisen, *I*

have been here since the first of May, and shall depart with my brother within three days; Er saß nächst dem Könige, he sat next to the king; Der Wind war uns entgegen, the wind was against us; dem Geseße zuwider, contrary to the law; Sie kam mit ihrer Tochter, she came with her daughter; Ich lud ihn nebst (or sammt) seiner Frau ein, I invited him together with his lady.*

Obs. The prepositions *außerhalb* and *außer* are frequently used indiscriminately, in the sense of *out of*: yet their respective proper meanings are distinct, answering to the English *outside of* and *out of*,—*außer* seeming to be rather of a negative nature, defining that place only where the object in consideration is *not*; whilst *außerhalb* refers more distinctly to the place where it actually is; as, *Er ist außer der Stadt, or außer Landes†, he is out of town, or out of the country; außer dem Hause, out of doors (not at home); Man schlug ein Lager außerhalb der Festung auf, they pitched a camp without (i. e. before) the fortress.* The negative import of *außer* is more obvious in its figurative use; as, *außer Zweifel, without doubt; außer Gefahr, out of danger; außer Athem, out of breath; außer der Mode, out of fashion; in which expressions außerhalb is unusual.*

When *außer* occurs with an accusative case, it is a conjunction denoting *but* or *except*, and the case of the noun excepted depends then on the verb. Thus, *Er hat außer mir noch mehrere Nachbarn eingeladen, means, he invited several other neighbours besides me; but Er hat alle seine Nachbarn eingeladen, außer mich, signifies, he invited all his neighbours but me.*

§ 103. Prepositions governing the Accusative:—

durch, *through; by.*

für, *for, instead of.*

gegen, *against, towards.*

ohne (or sonder‡), *without.*

um, *round, about; for.*

wider, *against.*

Examples.

Ein Bach fließt durch das Thal, und um die Stadt, *a rivulet flows*

* Though these two prepositions are often used indiscriminately, they are not quite synonymous: *nebst*, as a derivative of *neben*, *at the side of*, implies *adjunction*; *sammt*, as allied to *zusammen*, *together*, implies *conjunction*, and is especially preferable when the predicate must necessarily be referred to both nouns conjointly. Thus we may say, *Er hat ein Haus nebst einer Mühle von seinem Vater geerbt, he inherited from his father a house together with a mill; but we should say, Er will das Haus sammt einer Mühle für tausend Gulden verkaufen, he offers the house together with a mill for a thousand florins.*

† *Außer Landes* is the only expression in which *außer* governs the genitive.

‡ *Sonder* is nearly obsolete, and occurs chiefly in a few particular expressions; as, *sonder Zweifel, without doubt; sonder Furcht, without fear, &c.*

through the valley and round the town; Ich will weder für, noch gegen ihn streiten, I will fight neither for nor against him; gegen das Ende des Jahres, towards the end of the year; Das ist um (or für) kein Geld zu haben, this is not to be had for any money; wider (or gegen) meinen Willen, against my will; gegen (or wider) den Strom schwimmen, to swim against the stream; ohne ihn, without him.

Obs. The form *gen*, for *gegen*, is nearly obsolete, occurring only in a few expressions: *gen Himmel, towards heaven; gen Osten, towards the east*.*

The particle *bis*, *until, up to, or as far as*; often precedes prepositions which imply motion or direction *to*; as, *bis an den Hals, up to the neck; bis zu dieser Stunde, up to this hour; bis in den Wald, as far as into the forest.* The preposition is often omitted before adverbs of place or time, and before names of festivals and proper names; in which case *bis* seems to assume a prepositional character; as, *bis hierher, to this place; bis heute, till today; bis Ostern, until Easter; Er kam nur bis (nach) Paris, he came as far as Paris only.*—It answers to the English *to* in such expressions as, *von zwanzig bis dreißig Pfund, from twenty to thirty pounds; Er ist zehn bis zwölf Jahre alt, he is from ten to twelve years old.*

§ 104. Prepositions governing the Dative and Accusative:—

<i>an, on, at.</i>	<i>vor, before.</i>
<i>auf, upon.</i>	<i>über, over, above.</i>
<i>hinter, behind.</i>	<i>unter, below; among.</i>
<i>in, in; into.</i>	<i>zwischen, between.</i>
<i>neben, at the side of.</i>	

The prepositions of this class, it will be observed, do not refer to their object in an indeterminate manner, but define the particular part or side of it with which another object stands in local relation †.

These nine prepositions govern the dative case when they

* *Gen* is probably the same form with the English *gain* in *gainsay, again, and against*,—Anglo-Saxon *agen, ongean*.

† By this peculiarity *neben* is distinguished from *bei*. Both these prepositions denote proximity; but *neben* implies *at the side of*; *bei* merely *near* an object, without reference to any particular part of it. And this may serve to show that, contrary to what some grammarians assert, the latter preposition cannot belong to this class; for, even if it were used in good German (as undoubtedly it is not) with verbs of motion, it would still be more analogous to the prepositions *nach* and *zu*, which require only the dative case, than to the prepositions of this class.

refer to the *scene*,—that is, to the place where a thing is at the time referred to by the verb (no matter whether in a state of rest or of motion); and the accusative case, when referring to a noun which is the aim or end of an action. The same distinction, therefore, (of scene and end) which in English is marked by the two prepositions *in* and *into*, is in German, with all these prepositions, denoted by the two cases just mentioned.

Examples.

Der Knabe ist (or läuft) in dem Garten (or vor dem Hause), *the boy is in (or runs about) the garden (or before the house)*;—Er läuft in den Garten (or vor das Haus), *he runs into the garden (or before the house)*, i. e. from some other place; Die Bücher liegen auf dem Tische, lege sie auf mein Schreibepult, *the books are lying on the table, lay them on my writing-desk*; Er stieg auf den Berg mit einer Last auf dem Rücken, *he ascended the hill with a burden on his back*; Wer wohnt über (or unter) Ihnen? *who lives above (or below) you?* über einen Graben springen, *to leap over a ditch*; Ich sah ihn über die Brücke gehen, *I saw him go over the bridge*; Er trug ein Schwert unter dem Mantel, *he carried a sword under his cloak*; Das Kind fiel unter den Tisch, *the child fell (from his chair or some other place) under the table*,—unter dem Tisch would imply that the child was under the table before it fell; Er saß zwischen mir und meiner Schwester, *he sat between me and my sister*; Er setzte sich zwischen mich und meine Schwester, *he seated himself between me and my sister*; Warum stehen Sie hinter mir? stellen Sie sich neben mich, *why do you stand behind me? place yourself at my side*; Er versteckte sich hinter den Vorhang, *he concealed himself behind the curtain*; Mehrere Gemälde hingen an der Wand, über, unter, und neben dem Spiegel, *several pictures hung on the wall, both above, below, and at the side of the looking-glass*; Er lehnte sich an die Wand, *he leaned against the wall*; Er schrieb etwas an das Fenster, *he wrote something on the window*,—am Fenster would imply that he wrote something at the window.

Obs. 1. When locomotion is implied, the preposition, according to the above rules, still requires the dative if the two nouns connected by it remain at the end of the motion in the same position relatively to each other as they were in at the beginning of it; as, Der Hund lief zwischen den Rädern des Wagens, *the dog was running between the wheels of the carriage*, i. e. his place in running with the carriage was between the wheels;—the accusative (zwischen die Räder) would imply that he ran between the wheels from some other place. Thus also, Er lief vor (or hinter, or neben) dem Wagen her, *he kept running before (behind, or at the side*

of) the carriage; Er ging am Flusse hin, *he went along the river*.—On the other hand, the accusative is sometimes required without any motion being expressed, some such words as *extending*, or *in the direction to*, being supplied by the mind; as, drei Fuß in die Länge, *three feet (extending) in length*; eine Meile in die Runde, *a mile round*; Er hatte eine Narbe über die ganze Stirne (hin), *he had a scar (extending) over his whole forehead*. In several instances it seems optional to use the dative or accusative,—or, more accurately speaking, the noun governed by the preposition may be viewed in the relation of scene or of end, without much difference of import. Thus we may say, Er ist nun schon über der Gränze, *he is by this time on the other side of the frontiers*,—or, über die Gränze, *beyond (or past) the frontiers*; Er bauete ein Haus auf dem (or auf den) Berg, *he built a house on the hill*: in the first case we consider merely the act of building, of which the hill is the scene; in the second, we look merely to the object (the house), which is put on the hill *by* the action; Das Kind verbarg sich hinter dem (or den) Vorhang, *the child concealed himself behind the curtain*;—with the dative, the idea of scene, i. e. the place where something keeps itself concealed, is prevalent; with the accusative, the change of place is kept more in view; Was verbirgt sich hinter diesem Schleier? *what conceals itself (what is concealed) behind this veil?* (Schiller.) Thus also, Er kniete über eine Stunde auf der Erde, *he was kneeling above an hour on the ground*;—Er kniete auf die Erde refers to the change of position.

Obs. 2. In the preceding examples the prepositions are used in their primary import of place, in which import the application of the above rules is easy. In their secondary or figurative import, in which no locality is implied, recourse must be had to analogy; and we must ascertain whether the relation expressed bears more analogy to scene or to aim. Thus we say, Er ist auf der Reise, auf der Hochzeit, auf seiner Huth, in einer guten Lage, *he is on the journey, at the wedding, on his guard, in a good situation*;—Ich gehe auf die Reise, *I go on the journey*; Ich bin auf die Hochzeit geladen, *I am invited to the wedding*; Ich lebe unter dem Schutze der Geseze, *I live under the protection of the laws*;—Ich nehme Sie unter meinen Schuß, *I take you under my protection*. Take also these examples: Er spielt auf der Violine, *he plays on the violin*; Es beruhet auf Ihnen, *it rests with you*; auf einem Auge blind seyn, *to be blind of one eye*; in meinem Namen, *in my name*; ein Befehl an das Heer, *an order (directed) to the army*; ein Brief an mich, *a letter to me*; Ich dachte an Sie, *I thought of you* (i. e. my thoughts were directed to you); Wenden Sie sich an ihn, *apply to him* (literally, *turn yourself towards him*); Ich beziehe mich auf Sie, *I refer (myself) to you*; auf einen achten, *to mind one*; Er fiel in eine Ohnmacht, *he fainted* (literally, *he fell into a swoon*); Er band die Blumen in einen Kranz, *he*

formed the flowers into a garland ; Binde die zwei Theile in einen Band, bind the two parts into one volume.

It will be seen from the preceding examples, that a being or continuing in a certain state or condition, is analogous to the relation of *scene*, and requires the dative ; but a coming *into* a state or condition, or a direction of an energy of the mind to an object, is analogous to the relation of an *aim*, and requires the accusative.—In the use of *hinter*, *neben*, and *zwischen*, the above analogies are always obvious ; but the other prepositions of this class are often used in a sense in which the analogy to scene or aim must be obscure to the learner : in such cases, it may be useful to observe, *auf* and *über* generally govern the accusative* ; the other prepositions, the dative. Thus, for instance, cause is expressed by *über* with the accusative, and by *vor* with the dative ; as, *Er erschraf über die Gefahr*, or *vor der Gefahr*, *he was frightened at the danger* : so we say also *Er zürnet auf mich*, *he is angry with me* ; but, *Er ließ seinen Zorn an mir auß*, *he vented his anger on me*.

Thus also in reference to time, where *auf* and *über* always require the accusative case, and the other prepositions of this class the dative ; as, *Ich werde auf den Abend zu Ihnen kommen*, *I shall come to you in the evening* ; *Am Abend kam er wieder*, *in the evening he came again* ; *In vierzehn Tagen* (or *heute über vierzehn Tage*) *wird er zurück kommen*, *this day fortnight he will return*. However, when preceded by *bis*, *until*, all prepositions of this class require the accusative case—a continuation to a certain point of time being implied ; as, *von Morgen bis an den Abend*, *from the morning till the evening* ; *bis tief in die Nacht*, *till late at night*.

We may also notice here, that, according to Adelung and other grammarians, *über* denoting superiority always governs the accusative, whilst *unter* denoting inferiority governs the dative† ; as, *Der Jünger ist nicht über seinen Meister*, *the disciple is not above his master* ; *Ich bin weit unter ihm*, *I am far below him* ; *Sie ist über alles Lob*, und er unter aller Kritik, *she is above all praise, and he below all criticism*.

IMPORT OF THE PRINCIPAL PREPOSITIONS.

§ 105. We shall now give a more detailed account of

* In the sense of *during* (see the third signification of *über* in § 105), *über* governs the dative case.

† Probably because superiority involves a *rising*, an *exceeding*, above another object ; inferiority a *remaining* below. And, indeed, some such word as “*elevated*” or “*placed*” may be supplied by the mind when *über* denotes superiority. It must, however, be observed, that some authors use the dative when *über* in this sense is joined with verbs of rest ; and in the very example here given (*der Schüler ist nicht*, &c.), which Adelung quotes from Luther, the propriety of the accusative case has been questioned.

the signification of the prepositions in most extensive use:—

An denotes 1.) *At, on, or in*, as implying the touching of, or being close to, an object; as, *Er wartet am Fuße des Berges*, *he is waiting at the foot of the hill*; *das Schloß an der Thür*, *the lock on the door*; *Frankfurt am Main*, *Frankfort on the Main*; *eine Wunde am Arm*, *a wound in the arm*. Thus also figuratively, *Das ist ein Fehler an ihm*, *that is a fault in him*. 2.) Motion *up to* an object, or an annexing to it, or simply direction *towards* it; as, *Er ging an die Thür*, *he went to the door*; *Man band ihn an einen Baum*, *they tied him to a tree*; *eine Bittschrift an den König*, *a petition to the king*. (See also the examples of § 104, *Obs.* 2.) 3.) The reference of a quality or quantity to its matter or subject; as, *Er ist reich an baarem Gelde*, *he is rich in ready money*; *gesund am Körper, aber schwach am Geiste*, *sound in body, but weak in mind*; *Sie übertrifft ihn an Wiß*, *she surpasses him in wit*; *Mangel an Wasser*, *want of water*. 4.) The reference of an energy to the matter or object on which it is exercised; as, *Man bauet noch an seinem Hause*, *they are still at work on his house*; *sich an einem rächen*, *to revenge oneself on a person*. 5.) Cause, but chiefly of feelings, sensations, or mental perceptions; as, *Ich habe Freude an der Sache*, *I rejoice in the thing*; *Er berauschte sich am Weine*, *he intoxicated himself with wine*; *an einem Fieber sterben*, *to die of a fever*; *Ich erkannte ihn an seiner Stimme*, *I recognised him by his voice*. (See also *Obs.* 7.)

Auf denotes 1.) *On, upon, at*, in reference to the surface or upper part of an object; as, *Es leben Thiere auf Bergen, auf der ebenen Erde und auf dem Grunde des Meeres*, *there are animals living on mountains, on the level ground, and at the bottom of the sea*; *Er stand auf einem Fuße*, *he stood on one foot*; *Er sah auf uns herab*, *he looked down upon us*. 2.) A direct motion *towards*, or direction *to*, an object; as, *Er ging gerade auf mich (auf die Thür) zu*, *he went straight towards me (to the door)*; *Aller Augen waren auf ihn gerichtet*, *the eyes of all were fixed upon him*.—Thus also figuratively, in defining the direction of a mental energy: *auf etwas gefaßt seyn*, *to be prepared for a thing*; *auf jemand böse seyn*, *to be angry with any one*; *auf Mittel denken*, *to think of means*. (See also *Obs.* 8.) 3.) Immediate succession, often with the accessory idea of cause; as, *Ich folge auf Sie*, *I come next to you*; *Schlag auf Schlag*, *blow upon blow*; *aufs Essen schlafen*, *to sleep after eating*; *Er befindet sich besser auf die Arznei*, *he feels himself better after the medicine*; *Der Baum fällt nicht auf den ersten Schlag*, *the tree does not fall on the first blow*; *Es geschah auf seinen Befehl*, *it was done by his order*. 4.) The foundation or ground of a sentiment or action; as, *Er ist stolz auf seinen Reichtum*, *he is proud of his riches*; *Thue es auf meine Verantwortung*, *do it on my responsibility*. 5.) Manner, way:

Er betrug sich auf eine sehr unartige Weise, *he behaved in a very unbecoming manner*; auf Deutsch, *in German*; auf einen Zug, *at one draught*; sich auf Pistolen (auf den Hieb) schlagen, *to fight with pistols, (with swords)*. See also § 95, *Obs.* 2. 6.) The extent of a quantity; as, Die Kosten belaufen sich auf tausend Thaler, *the costs amount to a thousand dollars*; Alle kamen um bis auf einen, *all perished but one*; Er leerte das Faß bis auf die Hefen, *he emptied the cask to the dregs*; Sein Gehalt wurde auf die Hälfte herab gesetzt, *his salary was lowered to the half*.

Obs. 1. An and auf are both often rendered by *on*; auf, however, refers to the uppermost part of the object, an to any other exterior part, but more particularly to the sides of it: Er schrie an die Wand, und auf den Tisch, *he wrote on the wall and on the table*; auf der Mauer stehen, *to stand upon the wall*. In defining, therefore, the local relation of two objects, auf implies a perpendicular, an a horizontal, direction. Thus, auf dem Rheine, *on the Rhine*, refers to the surface of the river, am Rheine, *on the Rhine*, refers to its banks. So also when used adverbially; as, oben auf schwimmen (or liegen), *to swim (or lie) on the surface*; oben an sitzen, *to sit at the head or top (of a table, for instance)*. See also *Obs.* 2.

Aus denotes 1.) *Out of, from*, implying a motion from the interior or from within the limits of an object: Er kommt aus dem Keller (Gefängniß), *he comes out of the cellar (prison)*; Er zog ein Messer aus der Tasche, *he drew a knife out of his pocket*; Er ist aus Sachsen, *he is from Saxony*; Briefe aus Italien, *letters from Italy*. Thus also figuratively, aus dem Deutschen übersezt, *translated from the German*. 2.) *Of, in*, assigning the materials or ingredients: Er machte eine Bildsäule aus Marmor, *he made a statue of marble*; Der Mensch bestehet aus Leib und Seele, *man consists of body and soul*; Was ist aus ihm geworden? *what is become of him**? 3.) *From*, as expressive of motive or ground: Ich that es aus Verdruß (aus guten Ursachen), *I did it from vexation (for good reasons)*; aus Mangel an Geld, *from want of money*; Ich schloß aus seinem Anzug, daß, &c., *I concluded from his dress that, &c.*; Dieses ist klar aus einer Stelle in Livius, *this is evident from a passage in Livy*.

Bei is never used with verbs of motion. It denotes 1.) *By or at* in the sense of "close or near to": Ich wohne bei der Kirche, *I live near*

* Aus in this sense has, as may be seen from the examples, a reference, direct or indirect, to the change of form or state which the substance experiences by the action; and by this, aus is distinguished from von, which, like an adjective, simply indicates the kind of substance, without any reference to its previous form. Thus, eine Bildsäule von Marmor is exactly the same as eine marmorne Bildsäule, *a marble statue*. The difference between aus and von, in such cases, is therefore analogous to that between a common adjective and a participle past used adjectively.

the church; Ich stand bei der Thür (or bei ihm), *I stood at the door (or by him)*; die Schlacht bei Leipzig, *the battle of (near) Leipzig*; bei der Hand, *at hand*. 2.) *With, among, in*, in reference to the home or country of a person, or to an establishment: Er war bei mir, *he was with me (at my house)*; Er wohnt bei seinem Oheim, *he lives with his uncle*; Bei den Russen (bei uns) ist das nicht Sitte, *among the Russians (with us) this is not the custom*; Er dient bei mir, *he is in my service*; Ich habe eine Stelle beim Kriegs-Departement, *I have a situation in the War-Department*. 3.) A reference to the will or estimation of a person: Er gilt viel bei dem Könige, *he is in favour with the king*; Er wird Sie bei ihm entschuldigen, *he will excuse you to him*; Suche keine Hülfe bei ihm, *seek no help from him*; Ich dachte bei mir, *I thought within myself*. 4.) *At, with*, in the sense of "being present at, or simultaneous with"; and sometimes with the accessory idea of cause; as, Er war bei Tische (beim Gebete), *he was at table (prayer)*; Beim Weggehen lachte er, *at going away he laughed*; Es war bei dieser Gelegenheit, daß, &c., *it was on this occasion that, &c.*; Bei diesen Worten brach er in Thränen aus, *at these words he burst into tears*; Bei seinen Talenten war ihm das leicht, *with his talents this was easy to him*. 5.) In implying possession: Er ist bei guter Laune (bei guter Gesundheit), *he is in good humour (in good health)*; Bist du bei Sinnen? *are you in your senses?* Ich bin nicht bei Gelde, *I have no money*.

Lastly we will notice the following expressions, in which, and in some similar phrases, *bei* denotes instrumentality: Er nahm mich bei der Hand, *he took me by the hand*; Er faßte den Dieb beim Kragen (bei den Haaren), *he seized the thief by the collar (by the hair)*; einen beim Namen nennen, *to call a person by name*; bei der Lampe (beim Mondschein) lesen, *to read by the lamp (by moonlight)*; Es ist bei Todesstrafe verboten, *it is forbidden on pain of death*. Thus also in swearing, beim Himmel! *by heaven!* Ich beschwöre Sie bei allem was Ihnen heilig ist, *I beseech you by all that is sacred to you*.

Für: 1.) In most cases it corresponds to the English *for* (though *for* must in many instances be rendered in German by other prepositions,—see particularly *Obs.* 8.); as, Ich schreibe den Brief für ihn, *I write the letter for him*; Ich danke Ihnen für Ihre Güte, *I thank you for your kindness*; für etwas stehen, *to answer for anything*; Er ist sehr groß für sein Alter, *he is very tall for his age*; Für wen halten Sie mich? *for whom do you take me?* 2.) In some instances it denotes *to* in the sense of "as far as regards": Das ist eine Kleinigkeit (ein großer Verlust) für ihn, *that is a trifle (a great loss) to him*; Er ist todt für mich,

* A few instances of this kind are in German likewise construed with *für*, and in English with the verb "to be," expressed or implied; as, Ich halte (erkläre) ihn für einen Betrüger, *I think (declare) him to be an impostor*; für einen Philosophen gelten, *to be thought a philosopher*.

he is dead to me; Das ist für dich von keinem Nutzen, *that is of no use to you*.

We may notice also these phrases: Wort für Wort, *word for word*; Schritt für Schritt, *step by step*; fürs erste, *in the first place*, also for the present. The expression was für, *what sort of*, has already been noticed (p. 139).

Gegen denotes 1.) *Against, contrary or opposed to*; in which signification it is synonymous with wider*. See the examples, p. 238. 2.) *Towards, to*: gegen Osten, *towards the East*; gegen Abend, *towards evening*; seine Güte (Grausamkeit) gegen mich, *his goodness (cruelty) to me*. 3.) *About*, in the sense of "more or less": gegen hundert Menschen, *about a hundred persons*; gegen zwanzig Jahre, *about twenty years*.

It is mostly rendered in English by *in*† or *into*. (See the examples, p. 239.) We shall therefore notice only some particular expressions, in which *in* is rendered by other prepositions: Ich bin in Geschäften hier, *I am here on business*; im Gegenteil, *on the contrary*; im Ganzen, *upon the whole*; in Verlegenheit, *at a loss*; Wir sind im Frieden (im Kriege) mit dieser Nation, *we are at peace (at war) with that nation*; in etwas verliebt seyn, *to be in love with anything*; einem ins Gesicht loben, *to praise one to his face*; in Ansehung, *with regard to*; in einer Tiefe (Höhe, Entfernung) von zwanzig Fuß, *at the depth (height, distance) of twenty feet*; in guter Absicht, *with a good intention*; in die Flucht schlagen, *to put to flight*; einen in Freiheit setzen, *to set one at liberty*.

Obs. 2. In definitions of place, the use of auf and in is often difficult to determine. Generally it may be said, that *in* has reference to the limits, and *auf* to the surface, of a place; as, in jenem Lande, *in that country*; —Er lebt auf dem Lande, *he lives in the country*—not in town (am Lande signifies *on shore*, the locality being horizontally defined—see Obs. 1.); Er wohnt in dieser Straße, *he lives in this street*; Der Knabe spielt auf der Straße, *the boy plays in the (open) street*.—Further, with places of public business, or with amusements in which we take an active part, auf is used; whilst *in* is employed in cases where we are merely attentive to what is going on. Thus we say, auf der Post, *at the post-office*; auf dem Rathhaus, *at the town-hall*; auf dem Markte, *at the market-place*; auf dem Balle, *at the ball*; auf der Hochzeit, *at the wedding*, &c. But we say, im Concert, *at the concert*; im Theater, *at the*

* In compounds, gegen, generally, implies a counterpart, a set off, and in a few cases *presence*; but wider denotes *opposition, aversion*; as, Gegenrechnung, *counter-reckoning*; Gegensatz, *antithesis*; Gegenrede, *a reply*; —Widerrede, *contradiction*; Gegenstand, *object*; —Widerstand, *resistance*; gegenwärtig, *present*; —widerwärtig, *disagreeable*.

† But not *vice versa*, the English *in* being often rendered by other prepositions in German; see, for instance, an and bei in this section.

theatre; in der Predigt (Schule, &c.), *at the sermon (school, &c.)*.* In several cases it is optional to use *auf* or *in*; as, Er ist *auf*, or *in*, seinem Zimmer, *he is in his room*; *auf*, or *in*, der Bibliothek, *in the library*; *auf*, or *in*, der Welt, *in the world, &c.*

With, as may be seen from the dictionary, has nearly all the significations of *with*. (See, however, *Obs.* 3.) It is used also in reference to means of conveyance, in which case, and in a few others, it answers to the English *by*; as, Ich will es Ihnen mit einem Boten (mit der Post, mit der ersten Gelegenheit) schicken, *I will send it to you by a messenger (by post, by the first opportunity)*; mit dem Eilwagen reisen, *to travel by the diligence*; Die Festung wurde mit Sturm eingenommen, *the fortress was taken by storm*; mit Gewalt, *by force*.—We may notice also the following phrases: Er verheirathete seine Tochter mit einem Kaufmann, *he gave his daughter in marriage to a merchant*; mit einem verwandt seyn, *to be related to a person*; mit Tages Anbruch, *at day-break*; mit einem Worte, *in one word*; Sie werden es mit der Zeit erfahren, *you will learn it in time*; mit Fleiß, *on purpose*; Habe Mitleiden mit mir, *have pity on me*; mit Füßen treten, *to tread under foot*; Er wird mit jedem Tage kindischer, *he becomes more childish every day*.

Obs. 3. The English “with” is often rendered by *bei*, sometimes by *vor* and *von*—see these prepositions. From the examples of the second signification of *bei*, it will be observed, that when the English “with” defines the locality of an object, it is rendered by *bei*; *mit* would imply a conjunction, or “together with”; as, Er war mit mir bei seinem Bruder, *he was with me at his brother's*; Ich mußte mit dem Arzte bei dem Kranken die ganze Nacht aufsitzen, *I was obliged to sit up, along with the physician, the whole night with the patient*.

Nach denotes 1.) *Motion to or towards* an object (see examples, p. 236; see also *Obs.* 5.). 2.) *A direction to* an object; as, Er zielte (schoss, warf Steine) nach ihm, *he aimed, (shot, threw stones) at him*; sich nach Osten wenden, *to turn towards the east*. 3.) *For, or after*, with verbs denoting search, pursuit, or desire; as, Schicke nach dem Schneider, *send for the tailor*; sich nach etwas umsehen, *to look about for anything*; nach Ehre streben, *to strive for honour*; nach etwas schmachten (seufzen, verlangen), *to pine (sigh, long) for a thing*; Er fragte nach Ihnen, *he asked after you*. 4.) *After*, in reference both to space and time; as, Da kommen sie einer nach dem andern, *there they come one after another*; Sie jog

* When public buildings are mentioned as the locality of an office or engagement, they are construed with *an*: Prediger an der St. Peter'skirche, *preacher at St. Peter's Church*; Professor an der hohen Schule, &c., *Professor in the University, &c.* When an office or engagement is to be defined with regard to its master, or the particular establishment, without reference to any locality, *bei* is used.—See the second signification of *bei*.

es nach sich, *she drew it after her*; nach seinem Tode, *after his death*. Thus also figuratively, der beste Dichter nach Homer, *the best poet after Homer*. 5.) According to, *by, after*, referring to what regulates, or serves as a pattern; as, Ich lebe nach den Gesetzen, *I live according to the laws*; nach dem Landesgebrauch, *according to the custom of the country*; Man muß nicht nach dem Scheine urtheilen, *one must not judge by appearance*; nach dem Gewichte verkaufen, *to sell by weight*; Nach meiner Uhr ist es halb zwei, *by my watch it is half-past one*; nach der Natur gezeichnet, *drawn from nature*; ein Gemälde nach Correggio, *a picture after Correggio*. We say also, nach etwas riechen, or schmecken, *to smell, or taste, of anything*.

Obs. 4. Nach is placed after its case, 1.) When it denotes a *following the course or track*; as, Er gehet dem Flusse (der Straße) nach, *he follows the river (the road)**;—Er gehet nach dem Flusse signifies, *he goes to the river*. 2.) When used in the restrictive sense of “as far as regards”; as, Ich kenne ihn nur dem Namen nach, *I know him only by name*; dem Leibe nach im Grabe, der Seele nach im Himmel seyn, *to be, as far as regards the body, in the grave, as regards the soul, in heaven*. When nach denotes *according to*, it is in many instances optional to place it before or after its case; as, nach meiner Meinung, or meiner Meinung nach, *according to my opinion*; Nach seiner Gewohnheit, or seiner Gewohnheit nach, stand er früh auf, *according to his custom he rose early*.

Obs. 5. Motion to an object is expressed both by nach and zu. With persons zu only must be used; with proper names of places, or countries, nach; as, Er ging nach Windsor zum Könige, *he went to Windsor to the king*.—In many other cases both prepositions are used indiscriminately; as, Sie liefen zu, or nach, ihren Schiffen, *they ran to their ships*. Yet the proper distinction of nach and zu would appear to be, that nach defines more the direction of a motion, zu more the termination of it,—the former implying a course *towards* an object, the latter more the reaching or the attaining of it. Thus, Nach dem Degen greifen (or langgen), *to reach for the sword*;—zu den Waffen greifen, *to take up arms*. Hence in the examples of the second signification of nach, though referring to a person, zu cannot be used, as they imply mere directions; whilst, on the other hand, zu in its second and third significations could not be interchanged with nach, as it evidently refers there chiefly to the end of the motion.—See the end of Obs. 8.

Über denotes, 1.) Both *over* and *above* in all their significations; as, Ein Schwert hing über seinem Haupte, *a sword hung over his head*; über

* Nach in such instances may perhaps be considered not as a preposition, but as a separable particle; the form of the verb being then nachgehen.

ein Volk herrschen, *to rule over a people*; über dem Wasser, *above the water*; über zwanzig Pferde, *above (more than) twenty horses*. (See also examples, p. 239.) 2.) *Beyond*: Er schoß über das Ziel hinaus, *he shot beyond the mark*; Das gehet über meinen Verstand, *that goes beyond my conception*. 3.) *During*, often with the accessory idea of cause: Er schlief über der Predigt ein, *he fell asleep during the sermon*; Ich bin über dem Suchen müde geworden, *I have become tired during (and also in consequence of) the search*. 4.) *At*, implying cause: Er ist böse über Ihr Betragen, *he is angry at your behaviour*; Ich erstaunte über seine Kühnheit, *I was astonished at his boldness*. See also Obs. 7. 5.) *About, concerning*: Sie stritten sich über eine Kleinigkeit, *they disputed about a trifle*; über etwas nachdenken, *to think about a thing*; Sie werden sich darüber vergleichen, *they will come to terms about it*. Notice also these phrases: Wir werden über Holland nach Deutschland reisen, *we shall go to Germany by way of Holland*; Fluch über ihn! *curse on him!* Ich kann es nicht über's Herz bringen, *I cannot find it in my heart*.

Um denotes, 1.) *Round, around*: Er ging um das Haus (um die Ecke), *he went round the house (round the corner)*. 2.) *About, near to*: Er ist immer um mich, *he is always about me*; Um diese Gegend muß er wehnen, *near this place he must live*; um diese Zeit, *about this time*. 3.) *For*, in reference to an object of exertion or solicitude: Er arbeitet um Lohn, *he works for wages*; Ich bitte um Vergebung, *I beg (for) pardon*. See Obs. 8. 4.) *About, concerning*: um etwas besorgt seyn, *to be concerned about a thing*; um etwas wissen, *to know about a thing*. 5.) *By*, defining the amount of a difference: Er ist um einen Kopf größer, und um ein Jahr älter, als ich, *he is taller by a head, and older by a year, than I*; Das ist um einen Zoll zu lang, *this is too long by an inch*; Ich habe mich um ein Pfund verrechnet, *I am wrong by a pound*.—In this sense um, joined with so or so viel, is often used as a conjunction, before comparatives, for desto, and is then rendered by *so much the*: Je eher Sie kommen, um so lieber (or desto lieber) wird es mir seyn, *the sooner you come, (so much) the more agreeable will it be to me*. 6.) A loss, with a few verbs only: Sie kam um viel Geld dabei, *she lost much money by it*; einen um das Leben bringen, *to take away one's life*; Es ist um ihn geschehen (or gethan), *he is undone*. In the following and similar expressions, in which um mostly may be rendered in English by *to have*, the prepositional phrase is the proper nominative of the verb: Es ist eine schöne Sache um ein gutes Gewissen, *it is a fine thing to have a good conscience*—for ein gutes Gewissen ist eine schöne Sache. We may notice also the following expressions: eines um das andere, *by turns, alternately*; immer um den andern Tag, *every other day*; sich um einen verdient machen, *to deserve well of anybody*; Es sey darum, *let it be so*.

Unter denotes, 1.) Both *under* and *below* in all their significations: Es liegt unter dem Tische, *it lies under the table*; unter der Oberfläche,

below the surface; Ich will es unter zehn Pfund nicht verkaufen, *I will not sell it under ten pounds*; unter seiner Anleitung (Aufsicht, Regierung), *under his direction (care, government)*; unter diesem Steine, *under (beneath) this stone*. 2.) *Among*: Es entstand ein Streit unter ihnen, *there arose a dispute among them*; der beste unter uns, *the best among us*; unter andern, *among others*. 3.) *During, amidst*: Er ist unter dem Lesen eingeschlafen, *he fell asleep during the (or whilst) reading*; Ich bin unter Freuden alt geworden, *I have grown old amidst comforts*; unter dem Donner der Kanonen, *amidst the thunder of the cannon*.

Von denotes, 1.) A motion or removal from a place; also a separation from an object: Er kommt vom Berge, *he comes from the hill*; von oben, *from above*; Geh weg von hier, *go hence*! Schneide ein Stück von diesem Kuchen ab, *cut a piece off this cake*; Er ist von ihr geschieden, *he is separated from her*. 2.) Beginning, origin: die Reise von London nach Bath, *the journey from London to Bath*; von jetzt an, *henceforth*; ein Edelmann von Geburt, *a nobleman by birth*. Hence 3.) Origin with regard to the agent or author, especially in the passive voice, where the agent is always construed with von: Er weiß es von ihr, *he knows it from her*; Er soll von meiner Hand sterben, *he shall die by my hand*; ein Gedicht von Göthe, *a poem by Göthe*; ein Gemälde von Albrecht Dürer, *a picture by Albert Durer*; Er wurde von ihr getadelt, *he was blamed by her*. Thus also with qualifications in regard to agency: Das war sehr gütig (or unrecht) von ihm, *this was very kind (or wrong) of him*. 4.) The relation of form to its substance, or of a quality to its subject: Der Ring ist von Gold, *the ring is of gold*; eine Reihe von Bäumen, *a row of trees*; klein von Person, *small in person*; ein Engel von einem Kinde, *an angel of a child*; ein Schurke von einem Bedienten, *a rogue of a servant*.—In all these examples the first noun may be considered as the accident (i. e. form or quality) of the second. (See also Obs. 6.) 5.) Possession: as, Sachen von Wichtigkeit, *things of (i. e. possessing) importance*; ein Mann von Talenten (von Ansehen, von Vermögen), *a man of talent (of consideration, of property)*. It denotes sometimes also the partitive relation; as, einer von ihnen, *one of them*.—See the Use of the Genitive in the Syntax.

Vor denotes, 1.) *Before*: Er stand vor mir, *he stood before me*; vor der Thür, *before the door*; vor Ostern, *before Easter*. 2.) Superiority: Sie zeichnet sich durch ihre Lebhaftigkeit vor allen andern aus, *she distinguishes herself from all others by her vivacity*; Er hat das vor mir voraus, *he has that advantage over me*. 3.) *To*, implying deference: Alle standen vor ihm auf, *all rose to him*; Er nahm den Hut vor mir ab, *he took off his hat to me*. 4.) The cause of fear, aversion, and similar feelings; also of hindrance: Er lief vor dem Feinde davon, *he ran away from the enemy*; Ich zitterte (erröthete, schämte mich) vor ihm, *I trembled (blushed, was ashamed) before him*; einen Abscheu (Ekel, Furcht) vor

etwas haben, *to have an aversion to (disgust at, fear of) anything*; etwas vor einem verbergen, *to conceal anything from a person*; Ich kann vor dem Lärm kein Wort hören, *I cannot hear a word for the noise*. 5.) Cause arising from an excessive intenseness of a sensation: Er zitterte vor Kälte, *he trembled with cold*; Sie schäumte vor Wuth, *she foamed with rage*; vor Freude weinen, *to weep for joy*; Ich versmachte vor Durst, *I am dying of thirst*.

Zu denotes, 1.) A motion to, referring to animated beings: Er ging zu seinem Bruder, *he went to his brother*; Setze dich zu mir, *sit down by me*; Ich will lieber zu den Thieren im Walde gehen, *I will rather go to the beasts in the forest*. 2.) To, in reference to a proceeding to an action or business; which latter is often expressed figuratively by the place where it is usually performed: Sie schritten zur Theilung der Erbschaft, *they proceeded to the partition of the inheritance*; Kommen Sie zum Frühstück, (zur Arbeit, zum Spiel), *come to breakfast (to work, to play)*; Er führte sie zum Altar, *he led her to the altar*; zur Schule (zu Bette, zu Tische, zur Kirche) gehen, *to go to school (to bed, to table, to church)*; etwas zu Markte bringen, *to bring anything to market*. 3.) To, or as far as, referring to the ultimate limits of an action: Bis zum Pole ist noch Niemand vorgebrungen, *nobody has yet penetrated to the Pole*; Fülle es bis zum Rande, *fill it up to the brim*; vom Himmel bis zur Erde, *from heaven to earth*; Er hat es bis zum Obersten gebracht, *he has raised himself to the rank of colonel*. 4.) An adjoining or appertaining to: Lege es zu den übrigen, *lay it along with the others*; Wasser zum Weine gießen, *to pour water to the wine*; Er sang zur Guitarre, *he sang to the guitar*; Das gehört zu einer andern Klasse, *this belongs to another class*; der Schlüssel zum Schlosse, *the key to the lock*. 5.) In, at, in reference to the relation of scene (§ 100); but chiefly with proper names of places: Er lebt zu (or in) London, *he lives in London*; der Papst zu Rom, *the Pope at Rome*. In these phrases, zur rechten (or linken) Hand, *on the right (or left) hand*; zu den Füßen, *at the feet*; zur Seite, *at the side of*, zu may both refer to the scene or aim of an action; as, Er lag, or er fiel, mir zu Füßen, *he was lying, or he threw himself, at my feet*. 6.) The relation of means to an end; as, Er that es zum Spaß, *he did it for fun*; Geld zum Reisen, *money for travelling* (see also § 91, Obs. 2.); Was wollen Sie zum Frühstück haben? *what will you have for breakfast?* Zu meinem Erstaunen hörte ich, daß &c., *to my astonishment I heard that, &c.* To this relation (of means to end) we may perhaps refer those cases which imply a leading or inducement, either from internal or external causes; as, Er ist zum Soldaten geboren, *he is born to be a soldier*; Sie hat Talent und Neigung zur Musik, *she has talent and inclination for music*; Er ist zu Allem fähig, *he is capable of anything*; der Befehl zum Angriffe, *the order for attack*; Er rieth mir zu einem Vergleich, *he advised me to a compromise*. 7.) A transition from one state into another:

Es verbrannte zu Asche, *it burnt to ashes*; zu Wasser werden, *to turn to water*; Er stieß es zu Pulver, *he ground it to powder*; etwas zu Gelde machen, *to convert a thing into money*. Thus also with changes of a man's rank or situation: Sie wählten ihn zum Könige (zum Schiedsrichter), *they chose him for their king (arbiter)*; Er nahm sie zur Frau, *he took her for his wife*. 8.) Manner, either in reference to travelling—zu Fuße, zu Lande, zu Wasser, reisen, *to travel on foot, by land, by water*—or with numbers, measures, and weights, where it indicates the manner of arrangement or of division: Da liegen sie zu Tausenden, *there they lie by thousands*; das Pfund zu sechzehn Unzen, der Fuß zu zwölf Zoll, *reckoned, the pound reckoned at sixteen ounces, the foot at twelve inches*.

In most examples of the last signification, zu with its case forms an adverbial phrase: there are, however, many other instances in which zu with its noun may also be considered as an adverb; as, zu Hause, *at home*; zur Hand, *at hand*; zum ersten (zweiten, dritten, &c.) Male, *for the first (second, third, &c.) time*; zu wiederholten Malen, *repeatedly*; zur Genüge, *sufficiently*; zur Ungebühr, *unbecomingly, unduly*;—especially such phrases as form component parts of verbs (§ 89, *Obs.* 2.); as, zu Herzen nehmen, *to take to heart*; zu Mittag essen, *to dine*, &c. &c., which must be learned from practice.

Obs. 6. The subject matter is denoted by von, über, and auf. Von expresses it in a general way, and answers to *of*: Wir sprachen von ihm, *we spoke of him*; die Fabel vom Löwen, *the fable of the lion*. Ueber is used in reference to the subject of a dissertation, or of an investigation of its merits and demerits; auf in reference to the subject of a composition intended to produce a certain effect—the former implies an appeal to our judgement, the latter an address to our passions; as, Wir sprachen über den Gegenstand, *we spoke on (we argued) the subject*; ein Wort (eine Rede) über die öffentliche Erziehung, *a work (a speech) on public education*:—Elegie auf den Tod eines Kindes, *elegy on the death of a child*; ein Gedicht (Epigramm, Satire) auf einen machen, *to make a poem (an epigram, a satire) on a person*. Take also these examples: Schiller's Lied von der Glocke, *Schiller's Song of the Bell*; Pope's Versuch über (not auf) den Menschen, *Pope's Essay on Man*; Engel's Lobrede auf Friedrich den Großen, *Engel's panegyric on Frederick the Great*.

Obs. 7. Cause is denoted by various prepositions, each implying some different modification:—Aus, *out of, from*, denotes the motive or ground of an action or event—see the third signification of aus. Von, *by*, denotes agency, and therefore differs from durch, *by*, which denotes instrumentality; as, Er wurde von dem Richter verurtheilt, durch den Hingerichteten zu werden, *he was condemned by the judge to be exe-*

cuted by the hangman. If the first clause be omitted, we may say, *Er wurde vom Henker hingerichtet*: the instrumentality of the executioner being left out of view, he is then considered as the efficient cause.—As *von* refers chiefly to an agent acting on a *passive* object, so, on the other hand, *an* refers chiefly to a cause considered as a means of affecting the *susceptibility* of the object, and merely by its presence, without any obvious action; as, *Ich lernte das von ihm*, *I learned that of him*, i. e. he taught it me; *Die Römer lernten an einer gescheiterten Galeere Kriegsschiffe bauen*, *the Romans learned from a shipwrecked galley the art of building ships of war*, i. e. their susceptibility of learning, their ingenuity, was excited by the presence of the wreck. (See also the fifth signification of *an*.) *An* then implies the *presence* of the cause with the object acted upon; *über*, on the contrary, implies causation from a *previous* event or circumstance, and is chiefly used with verbs denoting emotions. Thus we say, *Er erfreuet sich an seinen Kindern*, *he delights in his children*,—and *Er freut sich über* die Ankunft seines Sohnes*, *he rejoices at the arrival of his son*.—*Vor* likewise denotes a present cause, but either as arising from an uncommon degree of intensity, and therefore producing an unusual effect (*Sie ist nicht an einem Kirschkern, sondern vor Wuth erstickt*, *she was not choked by a cherry-stone, but by rage*); or as the cause of unpleasant feelings. See the fourth and fifth significations of *vor*.

Obs. 8. End or final cause, expressed in English by *for*, is rendered in German by the prepositions *für*, *um*, *zu*, *auf*, and *nach*; which are distinguished thus:—*Für* implies “in defence of,” “for the benefit or use of;” *um*, on the other hand, implies a striving for an object, the acquisition of which is doubtful. Thus of freemen fighting for liberty we should say, *Sie sechten für ihre Freiheit*—i. e. in defence of it; and of slaves fighting for liberty, *Sie sechten um ihre Freiheit*—i. e. in order to acquire it; *Er bat um Gnade für den Verbrecher*, *he begged for mercy for the criminal*.—In reference to the price of a thing, *for* may be rendered indiscriminately by *um* and *für*; though in reference to the thing sold or bought, it must be rendered by *für* alone; as, *Ich kaufte (or verkaufte) das Pferd für*—or *um*—*hundert Thaler*, *I bought (or sold) the horse for a hundred dollars*;—but *Ich gab hundert Thaler für (not um) das Pferd*, *I gave a hundred dollars for the horse*.—*Zu* refers to what is necessary, or promotive, in the producing of an object or event; as, *Tuch zu einem Mantel für Sie*, *cloth for a cloak for you*; *reif zur Ernte*, *ripe for harvest*; *die Erlaubniß zum Verkauf*, *the permission for the sale*. (See the sixth signification of *zu*.) Hence we say, *Sie spielen zum Zeitvertreib*,

* Auf die Ankunft, in this phrase, would denote an *expected* arrival; as *auf* mostly implies some object in view—see *Obs. 8*.

they play for amusement—i. e. play is the material, as it were, of the amusement; *Sie spielen für Geld, they play for money*—i. e. they are paid for their play; but in gaming for money, which involves uncertainty of acquisition, we must say, *Sie spielen um (not für) Geld*; *Er rief die Nachbarn zu Hülfe, he called on the neighbours for help*; *Er schrie um Hülfe, he called out for help*.—*Auf*, on the other hand, implies expectation; as, *Ich war auf einen solchen Empfang nicht vorbereitet, I was not prepared for such a reception*—i. e. *I did not expect it*: *zu* instead of *auf*, in the preceding example, would mean, I was not prepared with the *means* of making such a reception.—*Nach* answers to the English *for* with verbs of motion, but more especially with words expressive of desire, or a longing for; and mostly with the accessory idea that this feeling cannot immediately be gratified.—See the third signification of *nach*.

It will then be seen, that the difference between *nach* and *zu* in this figurative use is analogous to that of their primary import (see *Obs.* 5.), inasmuch as *nach* implies a desire without the prospect of an immediate gratification or end; *zu*, on the contrary, an immediate leading to it.—See the above examples on *zu*. Thus, we would say also, *Ich habe Lust zu einem Spaziergange, I have a mind for a walk*; and *Es gelüftet sie nach verbotenen Früchten, she has a longing for forbidden fruits*.

TIME.

§ 106. Most prepositions are used also in reference to time, as may be seen from several examples in the preceding section.—See also p. 241. The following additional remarks may, however, be useful:—

An, on, is used only with the noun *Tag* (expressed or understood) and its compounds; as, *am dritten Tage, on the third day*; *am Sonntag, on Sunday*; *am ersten July, on the first of July*; *Sie starben an einem Tage, they died on one day*.—We say however also, *am Morgen, in the morning*; *am Abend, in the evening*; *am Anfange, at the beginning*; *am Ende, at the end*; but, in *der Nacht, at night*; in *der Mitte, in the middle*.—*Auf* generally implies time future to that referred to by the verb; as, *Ich bestellte den Schneider auf morgen, I ordered the tailor to come tomorrow*; *Wir schoben es auf den folgenden Tag auf, we deferred it to the following day*. Accordingly, when the English *for* refers to time posterior to that referred to by the verb, it is rendered mostly by *auf* (sometimes by *für*); whilst, when defining the duration of the action or state expressed by the verb, it is rendered by *lang*, not by *auf*; as, *Leihen Sie mir das auf (or für) einen Augenblick, lend me that for a moment*; *Ich gehe auf drei Tage aufs Land, I am going for three days into the country*; *Er hat drei ganze Tage lang (or eine Zeit lang) gewartet,*

he has waited for three whole days (or for some time); So saß er viele Tage, viele Jahre lang, *thus did he sit for whole days, for whole years.*—In, like the English *in*, denotes also *within*, and *hence*. Thus, Ich will das in einer Stunde schreiben, may signify, *I will write this within (innerhalb) an hour, or an hour hence.*—Über denotes 1.) *above*, implying *duration*; as, Er blieb über ein Jahr aus, *he staid abroad above a year.* 2.) *After*, implying a point of time, in such expressions as, Nächsten Sonntag über drei Wochen ist sein Geburtstag, *three weeks after next Sunday is his birthday*; Wir wollen es bis über acht Tage aufschieben, *we will postpone it till this day se'nnight*; über's Jahr, *this day twelve months*. Notice also these phrases: über kurz oder lang, *sooner or later*; allemal über den andern (dritten) Tag, *every other (third) day*; über Nacht, *during the night*.—Um denotes *about*; as, um Pfingsten, *about Whitsuntide*. In reference to the time marked by the clock, however, it is rendered by *at*; as, um zehn Uhr, *at ten o'clock*; um halb drei, *at half-past two*.—Vor, *before*, is used also in the sense of *ago*; as, vor einer Stunde, *an hour ago*; vor vielen Jahren, *many years ago*; vor Zeiten, *ages ago, in old times*. In the following phrases the case governed by *vor* takes *s* at the end: vor Alters, *in old times*; vor Abends, *before evening*; vor Mittags, *before noon*; vor Nachts, *before night*.—Zu, *in, at*, is used chiefly with the nouns *Zeit, time*, and *Stunde, hour*; as, zu jenen Zeiten, *in those times*; zu gleicher Zeit, *at the same time*; zur bestimmten Stunde, *at the fixed hour*. Zur Stunde means *to this hour*.

Obs. As in English, nouns may be used without a preposition, to define the time of the verb, and are then generally construed with the accusative case; as, Ich sehe ihn jeden Tag, *I see him every day*; Sie reiste den (or an dem, or am) ersten März ab, *she departed the first of March*. Thus also *duration*: Er wartete einen Tag (eine Stunde), *he waited a day (an hour)*.—The names of the days of the week, and, more frequently, the natural divisions of the day, (as *morning, noon, &c.*) are used also in the genitive case without a preposition; but only when the day or the week is either already known, or particularly defined; as, Er starb den sechsten Mai, Morgens (or des Morgens) um acht Uhr, *he died the 6th of May at eight in the morning*; Wir reisen Montag's (or am Montag) ab, *we depart on Monday*. To which may be added the anomalous genitive des Nachts (see p. 87); as, Er kam um elf Uhr des Nachts, *he came at eleven o'clock at night*. When the noun is defined by any other word than the definite article—the day or the week of which it denotes a part not being known—it must be construed with the accusative case, or with a preposition; as, Wir wollen Sie diesen Abend (or nächsten Montag, or an einem Sonntag) besuchen, *we will come to see you this evening (or next Monday, or on a Sunday)*. The

nouns just noticed, and *Tag, day*; *Monat, month*; and *Jahr, year*, are used in the genitive to denote an habitual or usual recurrence; as, *Er steht des Morgens früh auf, he rises early in the (i. e. every) morning*; *Des Sonntags geht er in die Kirche, on Sundays he goes to church*; *zweimal des Tages Arznei nehmen, to take medicine twice a day*; *viermal des Jahres, or des Monats, four times a year, or a month*. The phrases, *eines Tages, one day, once*; *heutiges Tages, now-a-day*; *nächster Tage, one of these days*, are idiomatic expressions, like so many others formed by the genitive. See the use of the genitive in the Syntax.

PREPOSITIONAL PARTICLES USED ADVERBIALLY.

§ 107. Most of the prepositions are used also as adverbs of place; as such they occur chiefly in compounds, either as separable particles of compound verbs (§ 89), or in composition with *her* and *hin* (§ 96), and other particles; as, *voraus, voran, durchaus, &c.* They are, however, often found separately; as, *Er ging im Zimmer auf und ab, he walked up and down in the room*; *Es ist aus mit ihm, it is all over with him*; *Der Monat ist um, the month is expired*; *Er wohnt neben an, he lives close by*. See also note(†), p. 256. We may further notice the following adverbial phrases: *durch und durch, through and through, thoroughly*; *über und über, all over*; *um und um, on all sides*; *nach und nach, by degrees*; *für und für, for ever*; *weder aus noch ein wissen, not to know how to help oneself, not to see one's way*.

Obs. 1. As the preposition defines the direction of a motion only with regard to the particular object to which it refers, an adverbial particle is often added, to define the direction of the motion as viewed by the speaker or spectator (§ 96, *Obs. 1 and 2.*); as, *Er kam zu uns herauf (or herab, herein, &c.), he came up (down, in, &c.) to us*; *Sie lief auf die Straße hinaus, she ran out into the street*; *Es fiel in eine tiefe Grube hinab, it fell down into a deep ditch*; *Er lief auf mich zu, he ran up to me*. *Von*, especially, from its denoting merely the starting point, is often attended by one of these adverbs, to particularize the direction of the motion; as, *von unten auf, from below upwards*; *von diesem Punkt an, from that point forwards*; *Von Deutschland aus verbreitete sich die Reformation, the Reformation spread itself from Germany*. Hence, the same particle often occurs twice in the same phrase; first as a preposition, and then as an adverb compounded with *her* and *hin*, to render the expression more graphic; as, *Er sprang über den Graben hinüber,*

he jumped over the ditch; *Er lief um den Tisch herum* (or *ins Haus hinein*), *he ran round about the table* (or *into the house*).

The adverb has in both languages always the verbal accent, and in German, as may be seen from these examples, it follows the prepositional phrase; according to the general rule, that the defined word follows the defining part*. Thus, in the above example, *Er fiel in eine Grube hinab*, the prepositional phrase *in eine Grube* defines and individualizes the general term *hinab*. From this it may already be perceived, that, as an adverb, the particle is a far more important word than as a preposition; since in the latter character it is *subordinate* to its noun, indicating an accidental relation of it, almost like the inflection of cases (see § 28, *Obs.*). The characteristic distinction of the preposition from the adverb being then its subserviency to the noun it governs, and which, as the most important word of the phrase, engages our attention to the exclusion of the particle, the latter has a tendency to resume its original and more independent character of an adverb, whenever the noun ceases to engage our attention, as may be seen in the compounds *darauf, thereupon*; *hierauf, hereupon*; *worauf, whereupon*, &c., which represent a prepositional phrase, of which the substantive ceasing to engage our attention, and being therefore represented by the mere particles *da, wo, &c.*, the preposition resumes the place and accent of an adverb: see § 64, *Obs.* 4. and § 65, *Obs.* 5.—Hence, also, when the case of the preposition is easily understood from the context, it is omitted, and the preposition thus resuming an adverbial character, becomes a component part of the verb†; as, *den Hut aufsetzen*, *to put the hat on* (i. e. one's head); *die Pferde anspannen*, *to put the horses to* (i. e. the carriage); *Wollen Sie das Geld einstecken?* *will you put the money into* (your pocket)? *Hat er das Buch mitgebracht?* *has he brought the book with* (him)‡?—Not unfrequently, however, the preposition with its case is expressed, and yet the particle repeated as a component part of the verb; owing to the import of the compound

* It may therefore be asserted, perhaps, that in all cases where the particle follows the noun (see the next *Obs.* and § 102.), it is an adverb and not a preposition; and that the case of the noun either depends on it (for adverbs too govern cases in German as well as in other languages), or on the relation indicated by it.

† To this tendency may in English be ascribed, among others, the practice of separating the preposition from its case, and placing it after the verb in the character of an adverb, when this case is a relative pronoun—a word of so little notice, that it is in English very often omitted; as, “The land (*which*) we live in.”

‡ *Wit* is used adverbially also separately, and denotes that there are others besides to whom the predicate applies; as, *Sie sind mit Schuld daran*, *it is your fault too*, or *you are partly the cause of it*; *Ich sah es mit an*, *I looked at it too*, implying “along with others”. *Wit unter* signifies *here and there*, or *now and then*.

verb having become so familiar to us, that the particular modification of the separable particle is overlooked; as, jemanden in eine Familie einführen, *to introduce (lit. to lead in) somebody into a family*; etwas aus einem Buche ausziehen, *to extract (to write out) something from a book*; Ich sehe es ihm an den Augen an, *I read it in his eyes*.

Obs. 2. When the particles *aus*, *durch*, and *über*, follow the noun to which they refer, they all denote *throughout*, and take the noun in the accusative; as, Er stand die ganze Predigt aus, *he was standing throughout the sermon*; Wir blieben den ganzen Sommer über (or *durch*) auf dem Lande, *we staid throughout the summer in the country*. As the preposition *aus* always governs the dative, and as the adverb *hindurch* may be substituted, in such instances, for each of the three particles, it seems more correct to consider them in these cases as mere adverbs denoting extent,—a relation generally requiring the accusative case.

Obs. 3. In conclusion we add the following remarks: 1.) The English particles *before*, *after*, and *since*, each of which is used in the character of a preposition, of an adverb, and of a conjunction, are in German rendered differently in each character; namely thus:

	Prep.	Adv.	Conj.
<i>Before</i> ,	vor,	vorher,	ehe or bevor.
<i>After</i> ,	nach,	nachher,	nachdem.
<i>Since</i> ,	seit,	seitdem,	seit or seitdem.

As, Er reisete vor mir ab, eine Stunde bevor sie ankam; sein Bruder war den Tag vorher abgereiset, *he departed before me an hour before she arrived; his brother had departed the day before*; Ich habe Sie seit einem Monate nicht gesehen, *I have not seen you this month*; Wie haben Sie sich seitdem befunden? *how have you been since?* Er ist glücklicher seit (or *seitdem*) er auf dem Lande lebt, *he is happier since he has lived in the country*. 2.) The adverbs *voran*, *voraus*, and *zuvor*, likewise signify *before*; the first implies a leading of the way, and being closely followed by others; as, Der Oberste ritt voran, dann kam, &c., *the colonel rode before (at the head), then came, &c.* Voraus implies a considerable interval between the two parties; as, Ein Bedienter wurde voraus geschickt um Pferde zu bestellen, *a servant was sent before to order horses*. In reference to time, it generally implies anticipation, and may mostly be rendered by *beforehand*; as, voraus bezahlen, *to pay beforehand*; Ich freue mich im Voraus, *I rejoice in the anticipation, or beforehand*. Zuvor mostly refers to time, and has nearly the same import as *vorher*; as, Ich bin nun so klug als zuvor (or *vorher*), *I am now no wiser than before*.—Notice also this phrase, *vor wie nach*, or *nach wie vor*, *before as afterwards*, i.e. *always the same*. 3.) The English particle *by*, when used adverbially, and not implying motion, is rendered by *dabei*, *daneben*, or *nabe*; as, *he stood by*, er stand dabei, or daneben; *close by*, ganz nabe, or dicht dabei. With

verbs of motion, however, it is rendered by *vorbei* or *vorüber*, and when governing a case, the latter is moreover preceded by a particular preposition in German; as, *He just went by*, *er ging so eben vorbei*, or *vorüber*; *We passed by that port*, *wir segelten an* (or *vor*) *jenem Hafen vorüber*. — *Vorüber* (but not *vorbei*) is often used with the accessory idea of *not tarrying*, or *not entering*; as, *Doch schnellen Schritts müßt ihr vorüber eilen* (Schiller's *Wilhelm Tell*), *but with hurried steps you must pass by*.

THE CONJUNCTION.

§ 108. The German conjunctions may, with much practical utility, be divided into three classes—viz. into *pure*, *subordinative*, and *adverbial* conjunctions.

I. *Pure conjunctions* we shall call such as merely conjoin one proposition or clause* with another, without modifying the verb of the proposition they commence; though some of them modify the preceding clause.—See *Obs. 2*. Thus if we say, *Sie ging weg, und* (or *aber*) *er blieb*, *she went away, and* (or *but*) *he remained*, the second clause (viz. “he remained”) has the same import as it would have without the preceding conjunction.

The following is a list of them:—

<i>und, and.</i>	<i>denn, for.</i>
<i>aber,</i>	<i>oder, or.</i>
<i>allein,</i>	<i>entweder—oder, either—or.</i>
<i>sondern,</i>	<i>sowohl—als, both, or as well—as.</i>
<i>nicht allein, or nicht nur—sondern</i>	<i>außer,</i>
<i>auch, not only—but also.</i>	<i>ausgenommen,</i>
<i>nämlich, namely; for.</i>	<i>unless, except.</i>

Examples.

Er ist nicht allein gelehrt, sondern er hat auch viele Erfahrung, not only is he learned, but he has also great experience; Entweder er ist (or *ist er*) *wirklich krank, oder er stellt sich so, either he is really ill, or he feigns to be so; Ich habe sowohl die Macht als den Willen dazu, I have both the power and the will for it; Ich werde ihm nichts leihen, außer er zahlt seine alte Schuld* (or more commonly, *außer wenn er, &c.*), *I shall lend him nothing, unless he pay his old debt.*

II. *Subordinative conjunctions* are such as render the clause* which they begin subordinate to, and merely expla-

* By *clause* is meant any part of a sentence that has a nominative and a

natory of, another (therefore called the principal) clause,—or more accurately speaking, they divest their verb of its assertion (i. e. of the quality of imparting anything as unknown to the hearer), and render the whole clause merely a modifying phrase of the principal or assertive verb. Thus in the sentence, *Ich ging weg, als sie kam*, *I went away when she came*, there is only one assertion or communication, viz. “I went away”; but her coming, which, as a fact, may have been known to the hearer before, merely defines, like an adverb, the time of my going away.—See also *Obs. 2*.

The following is a list of the subordinative conjunctions :

als, <i>as; when; than</i> .	weil, <i>because</i> .
indem, <i>while; as; inasmuch as</i> .	da, <i>as, since; when</i> .
indessen (or indeß), } <i>while</i> . (See	obgleich,
unterdessen, } <i>Obs. 3.)</i>	obwohl,
während, <i>during</i> .	ob schon,
nachdem, <i>after</i> .	wenn gleich,
seit,	wenn schon,
seitdem, } <i>since</i> .	wenn auch,
ehe, <i>before; rather than</i> .	wiewohl,
bevor, <i>before</i> .	ungeachtet, <i>notwithstanding</i> .
bis, <i>until</i> .	so, <i>as</i> (See <i>Obs. 3. and § 109, Obs. 5.</i>)
sobald, <i>as soon as</i> .	je—je or desto, <i>the—the</i> . (See
nun, <i>now that</i> .	<i>Obs. 3.)</i>
wenn, <i>if; when</i> .	wie, <i>like; as</i> .
falls,	damit,
im Falle, } <i>in case that</i> .	auf daß, } <i>in order that</i> .
wo,	daß, <i>that</i> .
wofern, } <i>if; provided that</i> .	ob, <i>whether</i> .
dafern,	

Examples.

Warten Sie, bis ich zurück komme, *wait until I come back*; Ich kann es Ihnen nicht sagen, ungeachtet Sie mein Freund sind, *I cannot tell it you, notwithstanding you are my friend*; Während er noch überlegte, hatte

verb. Thus, “When I went out, I met your friend, who looked very ill,” the second part (“I met your friend,”) is the principal clause, or the proposition strictly so called; that preceding it is a conjunctional, and the last a relative clause.

ich es schon ausgeführt, whilst he was yet reflecting, I had already executed it; Falls Sie meinen Bruder sehen sollten, so sagen Sie ihm, &c., in case you should see my brother, tell him, &c.—More examples will be found in the following observations, and in the next section; see also § 107, Obs. 3.

Obs. 1. When the subordinate precedes the principal clause, the particle *so* is very often placed before the latter; as, Nachdem sein ganzes Vermögen verschwendet war, und alle seine Freunde ihn verlassen hatten, so blieb ihm kein andres Mittel, als, &c., after all his fortune was spent, and all his friends had forsaken him, there remained no other means for him, but, &c.; Da es regnete, so blieb ich zu Hause, as it rained, I staid at home; Obschon er reich ist, so ist er doch nicht geachtet, although he is rich, yet he is not esteemed. Most probably this *so*, which, as we have seen, remains in English untranslated, was originally emphatic, and denoted then, or in that case—just as one may say in English, “if that should happen, then, &c.”—but it is now employed in such cases without any emphasis, conveying no distinct meaning, and serving only to show where the principal clause begins; and its use is therefore, generally, optional. Thus, for instance, in all the preceding examples it may be omitted without causing any change in the sense of the proposition. However, when the subordinate clause is long and complicated, this particle is seldom omitted; and in some cases great ambiguity would arise from its omission. Thus, Wenn ich wüßte, daß man mir die Stelle verweigern würde, bäte ich nicht unterthänigst darum; so würde ich nie darum anhalten, if I knew that they would refuse me the place did I not beg humbly for it, I would never solicit it. Without *so* before the last clause, one might take the clause bäte ich, &c. as beginning the principal or assertive part of the sentence, and as denoting, I should not beg humbly for it, &c. It must however be observed, that *so* is never used after the subordinate clauses beginning with *daß* and *ob*, nor after those defining the time *within* which, or *before* which, the action of the principal clause takes place—that is, those beginning with *indessen*, *unterdessen*, *während*, *indem*, *seitdem*, *bevor*, and *bis*.—The principal clause frequently takes *da* before it, when referring to *past* time defined by the preceding subordinate clause; and sometimes the particle *dann*, when the preceding clause begins with *wenn*; as, Als ihm endlich auch diese Hoffnung schwand, da verließ ihn der Muth, when at last this hope too disappeared for him, (then) his courage forsook him; Da die Sonne aufging, da ging Loth in Zoar ein, literally, when the sun rose, then Lot entered into Zoar; Und eb' ihm noch das Wort entfallen, da sieht man's von den Schiffen wallen, and before these words had fallen from him, a throng was seen coming from the ships; Wenn du unschuldig bist, dann alle Rache auf den Verräther, if thou art innocent, then vengeance on the traitor.

III. The *adverbial conjunctions* modify the verb of their clause like common adverbs. Thus in the sentence, *Er ist zufrieden, also muß er glücklich seyn*, *he is content, consequently he must be happy*, the particle also modifies the verb muß with regard to the cause of the necessity. These conjunctions are very numerous; but as, practically, they do not differ from common adverbs, there is no necessity for a complete list of them.

The following are the principal conjunctions of this class:—

auch, also*, too.		doch, yet, nevertheless, however.
also*,	} then, accordingly, consequently.	dennoch, still, yet.
folglich,		gleichwohl, yet, at the same time.
demnach,		jedoch, but yet, however.
mithin,		sogar, even.
daher,	} therefore.	sonst, or else, otherwise.
darum,		theils—theils, partly—partly.
deshalb,		vielmehr, rather; on the contrary.
deswegen,		weder—noch, neither—nor,
dann, or denn, then. (See § 109.)		zwar, it is true, indeed.

Examples.

Eilen Sie, sonst kommen wir zu spät, *make haste, or else we shall arrive too late* (sonst is used also as an adverb denoting *formerly*); Weit entfernt sein Feind zu seyn, habe ich ihm vielmehr Beweise meiner Freundschaft gegeben, *far from being his enemy, I have, on the contrary, given him proofs of my friendship*; weder in der Stadt, noch auf dem Lande, noch sonst irgend wo, *neither in town, nor in the country, nor anywhere else*; Theils konnte er nicht, theils wollte er nicht, *partly he could not, partly he would not*; Er hat mich verrathen; folglich (or also, demnach, mithin) ist er ein falscher Freund, und ich will daher (or deswegen, deshalb, darum) weiter keinen Umgang mit ihm haben, *he has betrayed me; then he is a false friend, and I will therefore have no further intercourse with him*. It will be perceived by this example, that deswegen, daher, &c. imply an effect, and folglich, also, &c. an inference or a conclusion. Also is used often, like then in English, when we merely wish to satisfy ourselves regarding the substance of what has just been said; as, Sie willigen also ein, *you consent then*.

Obs. 2. The characteristic distinction of the three classes adopted

* The learner will see that the English *also* and the German *also* have different meanings.

here, may further be illustrated by the following three examples, the conjunctions of which belong respectively to the three classes: 1.) *Er kann nicht kommen, denn er ist krank, he cannot come, for he is ill*; 2.) *Er kann nicht kommen, weil er krank ist, he cannot come, because he is ill*; 3.) *Er ist krank, daher kann er nicht kommen, he is ill, therefore he cannot come*. In the first example, his being ill, whilst it is given as a reason, is, at the same time, communicated as a fact supposed not to be known to the hearer; whilst in the second sentence, the same circumstance is given merely as a cause, but as a fact it may have been known to the hearer before: the verb is therefore, without any assertion, just like a verbal noun*; and, indeed, "because he is ill," is just the same as the phrase "because of his illness," in which there is no verb. These two conjunctions (*denn* and *weil*) have however this in common, that they introduce a clause as a modification of another clause, by which they differ from the third particle (*daher*), which indicates the cause of the verb of its own clause, and thus modifies it like any other adverb†.—From this difference in the function of the three classes of conjunctions arises also the difference in the position of the verb in the conjunctive clauses of each class, which the learner must have noticed in the above examples,—namely, the pure conjunctions, having no influence upon the import of their verb, have none either on its position, which is just the same as it would be without the conjunction; the subordinative conjunctions, divesting the verb of its assertion, cause it, according to what has been said § 89, *Obs.* 3, to be placed after its dependents; and, lastly, the adverbial conjunctions, when beginning the clause, cause the verb to be placed after its nominative, just like common adverbs in that position.—See the order of words in the Syntax.

It must however be observed, that *jedoch* and *indessen*, however, and *doch* when used in the same sense, are so kindred to the pure conjunction *aber*, that, when placed at the beginning of the sentence, the nominative may be placed before or after the verb; as, *Er versprach zu kommen, doch (or jedoch, or indessen) er kam nicht—or doch (jedoch, &c.) kam er nicht, he promised to come, yet he did not come*. The same license

* Hence the verbs of most subordinate clauses are in many languages, especially in Latin and Greek, rendered by participles.—See the use of participles in the Syntax.

† The difference between the second and third class of conjunctions is analogous to that between relative, and personal, or demonstrative, pronouns. Thus for instance, if we say, "Here is the book which I bought," the relative deprives its verb of assertion, rendering the whole clause a mere definitive of its antecedent ("the book"). But if we say, "Here is the book, I bought it (or that)," the pronoun (*it* or *that*) has no other function than that of denoting the object of its verb, the latter remaining independent or assertive.—See also the next *Obs.*, and the difference between the conjunction *daß* and the definitive *daß*, page 265.

obtains with the conjunction *entweder*, *either*.—See the example *entweder ist er*, &c., page 258.

Obs. 3. The preceding remark regarding the influence of the conjunction on the position of the verb, is particularly useful with the subjoined particles, which are used both as subordinative and adverbial conjunctions, or as adverbs, and it is often by the position of the verb alone that their meaning can be ascertained.

These particles are,

<i>Subordinative import.</i>		<i>Adverbial import.</i>
da,	<i>as, since ;</i>	<i>then, there.</i>
damit,	<i>in order that ;</i>	<i>with that.</i>
indem,	<i>as, while ;</i>	<i>this moment.</i>
indessen,	} <i>while ;</i>	<i>meanwhile.</i>
unterdessen,		
nun,	<i>now that ;</i>	<i>now, at this time.</i>
seitdem,	<i>since ;</i>	<i>since (the time referred to by the previous proposition ; see p. 257).</i>
so,	<i>as (—as) ;</i>	<i>so.</i>

Thus, *Hier ist Geld, damit Sie ihre Schulden bezahlen können*, signifies, *here is money in order that you may pay your debts*; but *damit können Sie ihre Schulden bezahlen* would signify, *with that you may pay your debts*; *Er hat sich immer gut betragen, so viel ich weiß*, means, *he has always behaved well, as far as I know*; but *so viel weiß ich* denotes, *so much I know*. (See also § 109, *Obs. 5.*) *Nun er mich nicht mehr braucht, kommt er nie zu mir*, *now that he does not want me any more, he never comes to me*; *Nun braucht er mich nicht mehr, now he does not want me any more*; *Ich endigte meinen Brief, indessen er die Zeitung las*, *I finished my letter whilst he was reading the newspaper*; but *indessen (or unterdessen) las er*, &c. signifies *meanwhile he read, &c.*

The above remark applies also to the conjunction *je*. Thus in the sentence, *Je länger wir warten, je unentschlossener wir uns zeigen, je (or desto) schlimmer machen wir es*, *the longer we wait, [and] the more irresolute we show ourselves, the worse we render it*, we see at once that the second clause (*je unentschlossener, &c.*), from its verb being last, is modifying like the preceding, and not modified like the following clause; in other words, that the second *je* is a subordinative, and not an adverbial conjunction. In English this can be known only by the conjunction *and* being placed before it. In Schiller's poem *Die Künstler* there is a period of eleven clauses, each beginning with *je*, of which the first three are subordinate or modifying clauses, and all the others principal or modified clauses; which, but for the position of the verb, would for the general reader be difficult to ascertain.

§ 109. The import of most of the conjunctions enumerated in the preceding section may be sufficiently understood from the English translation annexed to them. We must however notice here a few of them, which require some further explanation, and add some observations concerning different conjunctions which, in several instances, appear to have a synonymous import.

Auch 1.) *Too, also, besides*: Er weiß es auch, *he knows it too*; Auch ist noch dieses zu bemerken, daß, &c., *besides, there is this to be observed, that, &c.* 2.) *Even*: Auch der Weiseste ist nicht ganz fehlerfrei, *even the wisest is not entirely free from faults.* 3.) It implies concession when joined with *so*, or with particles which may be used as interrogatives (see § 97, *Obs.* 1.); also in such expressions as, Mag er auch kommen, wenn nur, &c., *let him come, if only, &c.* 4.) *Indeed, or to be sure*, implying "in accordance with the antecedent;" as, Er ist gut belohnt, aber er hat es auch verdient, *he has been well rewarded, but indeed he deserved it*; Ich habe den ganzen Tag gearbeitet; auch bin ich so müde, daß, &c., *I have worked all day; and indeed I am so tired, that, &c.* 5.) In questions it often implies doubt, and must be rendered by "are you sure," or "is it certain;" as, Ist es auch wahr? *are you sure it is true?* Habe ich ihn auch recht verstanden? *am I sure I understood him rightly?* Darf ich Ihnen auch trauen? *may I safely trust you?*—Joined with *wenn* nur, it implies an anxious hope or wish; as, Wenn er es nur auch nicht vergißt, *I hope he does not forget it.* 6.) It is often used to convey irony or reproof; as, Jetzt ist es auch Zeit dazu, *now is the right time for it, surely*; Warum war ich auch ein solcher Narr, es ihm zu sagen? *why was I fool enough to tell it him?*

Dann, denn, *then*.—Dann is more emphatic than denn*, and denotes mostly a sequel (see § 97); accordingly, it is used often as a correlative of *wenn* (§ 108, *Obs.* 1.), and also as a kind of ordinal; as, Erst lerne, dann spiele, *first learn, then play.* In all such cases the particle has the verbal accent in both languages. Denn, on the other hand, besides its causal import (see *Obs.* 4), corresponds to the English unemphatic *then*; as, Du hast gelernt, sagst du; gut, so spiele denn, *you have*

* In Old German the forms *wenn* and *denn* did not exist, *wann* and *dann* having been used both as adverbs and conjunctions; the latter being merely a figurative use of the former. But as the clear sound of *a*, when carelessly pronounced, is apt to drop into the dull sound of *e*, *dann* and *wann* have become *denn* and *wenn* in all those instances where they have no emphasis or verbal accent—as is chiefly the case in their conjunctive use; but in the cases where they have the verbal accent, the original *a* has been preserved. Thus we say, Wann kommt er? *when does he come?* Wenn er kommt, sage ihm, daß, &c., *when he comes, tell him that, &c.*

learned, you say; *well, play then*; Ist es denn wahr? *is it then true?* In some interrogative clauses it may be rendered by *well*, and in some subordinate sentences, by *indeed* or *in fact*; as, Wie befinden Sie sich denn? *well, how do you do?* Es war ein bloßes Mißverständniß, wie das denn oft der Fall ist, *it was a mere misunderstanding, as indeed is often the case.*

Daß, *that*.—This conjunction must not be confounded with daß, the nominative and accusative of the neuter gender of the article, and of the demonstrative and relative pronouns; as, Das einzige Verlangen, daß ich habe, ist, daß er kommen möchte; *the only desire that I have, is, that he would come*; at that I should rejoice. It will be seen from this example, that the only difference between the relative and conjunctive clause is, that the former limits its antecedent (Verlangen), and the latter explains its object*. This conjunction is frequently omitted in English; which can be done in German only when its clause forms the accusative case of a verb; as, Sie wissen er ist Ihr Freund, *you know (that) he is your friend*. But even in such instances daß is not omitted after a negative, and seldom after an interrogative, clause; as, Sie wissen nicht, daß er Ihr Freund ist, *you do not know that he is your friend*; Weiß er, daß ich hier bin? *does he know (that) I am here?* Upon the whole it would be safest for the learner never to make use of this ellipsis. In the following and similar phrases beginning with daß, some introductory verb is supplied by the mind: Daß ich ihn nie gesehen hätte! (supply, ich wollte), *would that I had never seen him*. Thus also, Daß Sie ja nichts verrathen, [*I hope*] *that you will not reveal anything*; Daß Sie doch immer reden müssen, [*it is ver- atious*] *that you must be always talking*.—Notice also these expressions: Daß ich nicht wüßte, *not that I know of, or not to my knowledge*; Daß ich kein Narr wäre, *I shall not be such a fool*.

Nämlich, *namely*, must not be confounded with namentlich, which means *especially*, or *more especially*; as, Er spricht drei Sprachen, nämlich, Englisch, Deutsch, und Französisch, *he speaks three languages, namely, English, German, and French*;—Er spricht mehrere Sprachen sehr gut, namentlich (or besonders) Englisch und Deutsch, *he speaks several languages very well, especially English and German*. Frequently, however, nämlich is used in explaining circumstantially the preceding summary sentence; in which case it follows the verb of its clause, and may be rendered by *for*, or remain untranslated; as, Das

* If the conjunction is without an antecedent, *that*, or *it*, is understood as such; the conjunction *that* being then equivalent to *that* (or *it*) *that*,—just as *who* is often used for *he who*; see § 65, Obs. 3, and especially the example *die Ihr sucht*, &c. Sometimes deswegen, *for the reason*, or *in order*, is understood as the antecedent.

ist eine der merkwürdigsten Bibliotheken, sie besitzt nämlich nicht nur sehr seltene Ausgaben, &c., *this is one of the most remarkable libraries, (for) it possesses not only the rarest editions, &c.*

So 1.), *So, thus*: Warum so spät? *why so late?* Er sprach so, *he spake thus.* 2.) *As*: dreimal so alt, *three times as old*; noch einmal so groß, *as large again* (see also *Obs.* 5.). 3.) It is often used as a connective of a modifying and modified clause, and is not translated when the verb of the modifying clause is devoid of assertion (§ 89. *Obs.* 3.)—that is, when it begins with a subordinative conjunction (see § 108. *Obs.* 1.), or with *was* denoting *as for*, or contains any of the expressions noticed § 97. *Obs.* 1, as answering to the English *ever* (in *whoever*, &c.); as, *Was mich betrifft, so gestehe ich, daß, &c., as for me, I confess that, &c.*; *Wer du auch bist, so bist du dem Gesetze unterworfen, whoever you be, you are subject to the law*; *Ich mag thun was ich will, so ist er unzufrieden mit mir, do what I will, he is dissatisfied with me.* But when the verb of the modifying clause is assertive, so has in English some corresponding conjunction; as, *Fürchte Gott, so darfst du keinen Menschen fürchten, fear God, and you need not fear man*; *Raum war er eingetreten, so ging sie weg, scarcely had he entered, when she went away*; *Es dauerte nicht lange, so kam auch sein Bruder, it was not long, when (or before) his brother also came.* 4.) In colloquial language it is sometimes used for *obnehin, besides*; as, *Ich thue es gerne; ich habe so (or obnehin) nichts zu thun, I do it willingly; besides, I have nothing else to do.* In conjunction with *denn* it is often a mere expletive, see the last example, p. 264. When the English *so* has a pronominal import, it is rendered by *daß* or *es*; and when equivalent to *provided, or if only*, by *wenn nur*; as, *He is your enemy, but I am not so, Er ist Ihr Feind, aber ich bin es nicht; He does anything, so he is paid for it, Er thut alles, wenn er nur dafür bezahlt wird.* Formerly the German *so* was likewise often used in the sense of *if*; in modern German this is the case only in poetry, and in the expression, *So Gott will, please God.*

Wenn denotes both *when* and *if*—see *Obs.* 4 and 6. In the latter import it is often omitted, and then the nominative is placed after its verb; not merely as in English when the finite verb is in the imperfect—as, *Wäre das wahr, hätte er sie wirklich verrathen, dann, &c.; were this true, had he really betrayed her, then, &c.*—but also in all other tenses; as, *Seid ihr reich (for wenn ihr reich seid), so habt ihr Freunde, if you are rich, you have friends.* When *if* is used in the sense of *whether*, it must be rendered in German by *ob*; as, *See if it rains, sehen Sie ob (not wenn) es regnet.* The particle *wo* is sometimes used for *wenn*; as, *wo nicht, if not; wo möglich, if possible.* We may say also *als ob*, for *als wenn, as if*.—*Wenn anders* denotes *if at all*; as, *Wenn ich ihn anders kenne, if I know him at all.*

Zwar, indeed, it is true, is used as a correlative to *aber, allein, or doch*—see *Obs. 3*. In conjunction with *und*, it introduces a qualification as an after-thought, in order to draw particular attention to it; as, *Er gab ihr das Geld, und zwar mit vieler Bereitwilligkeit, he gave her the money, and with much readiness too.*

Obs. 1. The conjunctions corresponding to *although* (see p. 259) are often used indiscriminately. However, in reference to a known fact, we more commonly use the compounds with *ob*, whilst in reference to an hypothesis, or when *although* is equivalent to “even if,” those with *wenn* are preferable; as, *Ob schon (or obgleich) es regnete, ging er doch aus, although it rained, he went out; Ich könnte Ihnen das nicht sagen, wenn Sie auch (or wenn Sie gleich) böse darüber würden, I could not tell you that, even if it made you angry.* The conjunctions compounded with *ob* and *wenn* are, generally, separated, as in the last example, by the interposition of the nominative, and sometimes also by that of other words if they are monosyllables; as, *Ob ich ihn schon (or gleich) kenne, although I know him.* *Wenn* is often omitted in such cases, and then the nominative is placed after the verb; as, *ist er gleich (or auch) arm, although he is poor.*—See *wenn*, in the preceding page.

Obs. 2. Regarding the adversative conjunctions, as they are called, *doch, dennoch, jedoch, gleichwohl, and indessen*, we observe as follows:—*Dennoch* and *doch* imply the contrary of the usual effect of the antecedent clause; as, *Er hat alles was er wünscht, und dennoch (or doch) ist er nicht glücklich, he has all that he wishes, and yet he is not happy.* *Doch* (but not *dennoch*) often implies concession, like *though* in English; in which case it usually follows the verb, and is unemphatic; as, *Er ist nicht glücklich, und er hat doch (not dennoch) alles was er wünscht, he is not happy, and yet (or though) he has all that he wishes.* *Gleichwohl* has the same meaning as *dennoch*, only that it is less emphatic, for it implies a kind of after-thought, and is therefore seldom used when the opposition of the two clauses is the principal aim of the sentence; as, *Ob schon er sehr reich ist, so wollte er uns dennoch (or doch) nicht helfen; gleichwohl haben wir ihn oft verpflichtet, although he is very rich, still he would not help us; and yet we have often obliged him.*—*Jedoch* does not imply an inconsistency like *dennoch*, but a restriction, anticipating an erroneous surmise with regard to a concomitant circumstance, and may be rendered by *however*, or *but yet*; as, *Er achtet und liebt sie; jedoch besucht er sie selten, he esteems and loves her; but yet he seldom goes to see her.*—*Indessen* has the least adversative power of the preceding particles, and is therefore sometimes accompanied by *doch*, to render the clause more adversative. It answers to the English *at the same time*, or *however*; as, *Er hat Unrecht; indessen muß man gestehen, daß, &c., he is wrong;*

at the same time one must confess that, &c.; Ich habe zwar wenig Zeit, indessen mein Versprechen will ich doch halten, *I have, indeed, little time, however I will still keep my promise.* See also § 108. Obs. 2.

Obs. 3. The three adversative conjunctions allein, aber, and sondern, all denote *but*.—Allein implies an impediment to the result expected from the antecedent clause; in which latter zwar, *indeed*, is often employed as a correlative conjunction to allein. Aber is used in the same restrictive sense, and also in all cases where the English *but* implies an addition or a transition; as, Er ist zwar gelehrt, allein (or aber) er hat keine Erfahrung, *he is indeed learned, but he has no experience*; Wir wollten ausgehen, allein es regnete, *we wanted to go out, but it rained*;—Er ist stolz, aber (not allein) nicht eitel, *he is proud, but not vain*; Aber was wollen Sie denn? *but what do you want then?* Sondern implies a correction of an erroneous opinion expressed in the preceding clause, which is therefore always in the negative; as, Er ist nicht den achten, sondern den zwölften Mai abgereiset, *he did not depart the eighth, but the twelfth of May.* But we would say, Er ist den achten nicht abgereiset; er wird aber den zwölften ganz gewiß abreisen, *he did not depart the eighth; but he will certainly depart the twelfth*; for here the second clause is not a correction of, but a simple addition to, the former clause.

We may also remark here that the English *but*, if equivalent to “only”, is rendered by nur; as, *but one week*, nur eine Woche. If equivalent to “except”, it may be rendered by außer (see § 102. Obs.), or ausgenommen; but more frequently, if the previous expression contains or involves a negation, it is rendered by als, otherwise by nur nicht; as, *None but he could do it*, niemand als er konnte es thun; *Nothing but vexation*, nichts als Verdruss; *Nowhere but here*, nirgends als hier; *Who but she?* wer sonst als sie? *Anything but that*, alles nur das nicht. *But for* is mostly rendered by wenn nicht; as, *He would do it, but for her*, er würde es thun, wenn sie nicht wäre. *The last but one* is translated by der (die or das) vorletzte.

Obs. 4. Causation is denoted by da, *as* or *since*; indem, *inasmuch as*; weil, *because*; and denn, *for*. These particles answer exactly to the English conjunctions annexed to them; and the learner may therefore know from the idiom of his own language, when they may be used indiscriminately, and when one or the other must be used exclusively. Thus, in answering a question beginning with warum, *why*, we must use weil, like *because* in English.—See also § 108. Obs. 3.—We may further observe, that a clause with indem, *inasmuch as*, mostly follows the principal clause, as in English; as, Er konnte nicht kommen, indem er nicht eingeladen war, *he could not come, inasmuch as he was not invited.*

Obs. 5. Comparison is denoted by *als*, *wie*, *so*, and *je—desto*.—*Als* corresponds both to the English *than* and *as*: *Er ist reicher als ich, aber nicht so reich als man gewöhnlich glaubt, he is richer than I, but not so rich as is generally thought.* In many instances *wie* is used indiscriminately with *als*, in the sense of *as*; as, *Ich habe so viel Recht dazu, als Sie, or wie Sie, I have as much right to it as you.* It would appear, however, from those cases in which one or the other of these particles is preferred by usage, that the comparison with *als* defines the exact extent of a quality or energy, and is therefore restrictive, whilst *wie* implies an eminent but indefinite degree of it. Thus in the following instances, in which the comparison is restrictive, *wie* is unusual: *Sie ist eben so unschuldig als unglücklich, she is as innocent as unfortunate*; *So lange als ich lebe, as long as I live*; *Er handelte recht als (not wie) Soldat, aber abscheulich als Mensch, he acted rightly as a soldier, but abominably as a man.*—In the following and similar expressions, on the other hand, *wie* alone is used:—*Aufgebracht wie er war, irritated as he was*; *Er ist so geschickt, wie keiner von uns, he is cleverer than any of us*; *Er liebt sie wie eine Schwester, he loves her like a sister, (als eine Schwester, would imply that she was his sister)*; *Das Kind ist so schön wie ein Engel, the child is as beautiful as an angel*; and so in all other comparisons with an object proverbial for the quality in question, so that the comparison is more a simile than an exact definition of the extent of the quality.—This particle (*wie*) further corresponds to the English *like*, and to *as* denoting “in the same manner”, or “according to”; as, *Wie der Herr, so der Knecht, like master, like man*; *Ich lebe jetzt wie sonst, I live now as formerly*; *Thun Sie es wie ich, do as I do*; *wie ich höre, as I understand.* We say, however, *als (not wie) ob, as if*.

So, as we have seen from the above examples, is used as a correlative of *als* and *wie*, and answers both to the English *so* and *as*. When the word between the particles *so* and *als* is an adjective or adverb, *als* is often omitted, and the particle *so*, from its including the subordinative *als*, becomes itself a subordinative conjunction; as, *so geschwind (als) er laufen konnte, as quick as he could run*; *so lange ich ihn kenne, as long as I have known him*; *so wahr ich lebe, as true as I live.* Of the same description are the compounds *sobald, as soon as*, and *insofern, or in so fern, in as far as*,—the particle *als* being understood; as, *sobald (als) er mich sah, as soon as he saw me*; *Insofern (als) er ihr Vormund ist, ist es seine Pflicht, in as far as he is her guardian, it is his duty.* When two adjectives of equal intensity, but of an opposite import, are compared, to render the antithesis more striking the defining or subordinate clause is placed before the other, and is construed in the above manner, i.e. with *so* and the omission of *als*;

as, So dumm (als) er aussieht, so listig ist er, *he is just as cunning as he appears stupid*. The comparison with je—je or desto, we have already noticed (§ 108. Obs. 3.). We have only to add, that desto is often used in the sense of “so much the”; as, Ist er weg? desto besser, *is he gone? so much the better*. For desto we often say um so—see p. 248.—The phrase je nach dem signifies *according as or to*; as, je nach dem die Umstände es erfordern, *according as the circumstances require it*.

Obs. 6. The conjunctions als, wenn, indem, da, and wie, besides their various other significations, are all used also in reference to time, answering to the English *when* and *as*; with regard to which we observe as follows:—Both als and wenn denote *when*, the former in reference to definite or specified past time, the latter in reference to future time (whether specified or not), and unspecified past time; as, Als er auf dem Lande lebte, besuchte ich ihn oft, wenn er sich unpasslich befand, *when he lived in the country, I often went to see him, when he found himself unwell*; Ich werde es Ihnen morgen geben, wenn ich zu Ihnen komme, *I shall give it you tomorrow, when I come to you*. Als is used also in the sense of *as*: Als (or indem) ich so über diese Begebenheit nachdachte, kam ein Mann zu mir, &c., *as I was thus meditating on this event, a man came to me, &c.*—Indem is likewise used in the sense of *as* (see the last example); more commonly, however, it signifies *in the moment that*; as, Indem der Blitz niederfuhr, brannte auch schon das Haus, *the moment the lightning struck, the house was on fire*. It is particularly employed when two simultaneous actions have one and the same subject; as, Sehen Sie, sagte er, indem er auf ein Haus hinzeigte, *see, said he, pointing to a house*.—Wie implies also (like indem) an immediate succession of two events; and in the last example but one *wie* may be used for *indem*.—Da implies the same determination of time as *als*, though it is not often used in this sense, but more generally in that of causation.—See Obs. 4.

THE INTERJECTION.

§ 110. Interjections are generally arranged according to the emotions which they indicate. The following are of common occurrence:—*Interjections of grief*: ah or ach (*ah!*); weh, o weh or au weh (*O woe!*); leider (*alas!*);—of joy: ha, juchhei, juchheisa (*hey!*); hurrah (*huzza!*);—of surprise or wonder: ei or ei ei, ha, ho, hum or hm;—of disgust: pfui or fi (*fie!*);—of horror or terror: ha or hu hu;—

of *calling* : he, beda, holla, hst (*ho! there!*). The interjection st enjoins silence, or secrecy; hui indicates haste; ha ha, pleasure, or surprise, at making a discovery. Topp denotes *done! agreed!*; wohlan, *well then!*; traum, *truly! verily!* (only in poetry); mein, *I should like to know**.

Obs. 1. Nouns, verbs, and other parts of speech, and even whole phrases, may in particular cases be considered as interjections; for instance, frisch, *fix, quick!* frisch auf, *away!* lustig, *cheer up!* stille, *silence!* heil, or heil dir, *hail!* daß Gott erbarme, *Lord have mercy on us!* or O heaven! horch, *hark!* sieh da, *behold!* halt or halt an, *stop!* her damit, *here with it!*—See also the interjectional imperative, § 93.

Obs. 2. To the above might be added all kinds of expressions implying surprise or swearing; as, poß tausend, or poß Element! or alle Hagel! Sapperment! (for Sacrament); der Tausend! ei der Geier! But these, and a great many more of this stamp, must be considered as low; though in dramatic works they are of frequent occurrence.

Obs. 2. Some grammarians refer also to this part of speech such ejaculations as are mere imitations of sound; as, Husch! *war er weg, whiz! and away he was;* Knack! da brach es, *crack! and it was broken.* But such imitations, though probably they formed the first attempts at speech, hardly deserve in a cultivated tongue the name of words. They are, however, not uncommon in popular poetry†.

FORMATION OF WORDS.

§ 111. In German, as in other languages, words are formed from others by derivation and composition; and it is from these two resources that the German language has, from a comparatively small stock of words, acquired nearly the whole of its vast riches‡.

DERIVATION.

The parts of speech to be considered under this head,

* Mein! sollte wohl der Wein noch fließen, *I wonder whether the wine still flows.*—(Goethe's *Faust*.)

† Especially in Bürger's ballads, where they often form whole verses.

‡ See note †, page 5.

are substantives, adjectives, and verbs*, both derivatives and their primitives belonging chiefly to one or the other of these three classes. As primitives† they are used in their grammatical root (§ 27. *Obs.*) only, and not in their inflected form. The following cases, however, must be considered as exceptions:—

1.) The final *e*, and sometimes also the final *en*, of the primitive is omitted in the derivative. Thus, from *weise*, *wise*; *Friede*, *peace*; *Schatten*, *shade*, are formed *Weisheit*, *wisdom*; *friedlich*, *peaceable*; *schattig*, *shady*. 2.) In some instances words are derived from the plural of substantives (see § 32. *Obs.* and note *, p. 273,) and the comparative of adjectives (see § 114.)‡. 3.) In the case of irregular verbs, words are derived not only from the grammatical root (i.e. the infinitive without its ending *en*), but, frequently, also from the imperfect. Thus, from *graben*, *to dig*, is derived *Gräber*, *digger*; and from its imperfect (*grub*) *Grube*, *pit*; *grübeln*, *to investigate minutely*, &c.;—from *schneiden*, *to cut*, *Schneider*, *tailor*; and from its imperfect (*schnitt*) *der Schnitt*, *the cut*; *Schnitter*, *reaper*, &c.§

Derivation is effected in two ways: 1. Without any change of the primitive, so that words belonging to different parts of speech have one and the same grammatical root||; as, *der Blitz*, *the lightning*; *blitzen*, *to lighten*;—*wild*, *wild*; *das Wild*, *the game*;—*grün*, *green*; *das Grün*, *the green*; *grünen*, *to green*.

* The formation of adverbs has already been treated of (§ 94 *seqq.*), and the other parts of speech consist mostly of original words.

† The expression is used here relatively—namely in reference to the word *immediately* derived from it, though it may itself be a derivative from another word. Thus, *Flucht*, *flight*, is the primitive of *flüchten*, *to put in security*, and a derivative from *fliehen*, *to flee*. Only those derivatives, we may add, can be treated of in this work, whose primitives are still current in the language, and preserved unchanged in the derivation; the others being of little practical utility are omitted. For the same reason we notice in the following sections only those annexes by which large classes of words are formed.

‡ That the inflected adjective and the infinitive are sometimes used substantively (§§ 52. and 91.) cannot be considered as an exception, as this use constitutes no derivation.

§ Several derivatives are formed from the ancient plural of the imperfect (§ 86. *Obs.* 1.), especially those from verbs of the fifth class (§ 86.); as, *der Sprung*, *the leap*; *der Schuß*, *the shot*, from the old plural of the imperfects of *springen* and *schießen*. In a few instances there are derivatives both from the plural and singular; as, *Band*, *tie*; *Bund*, *league*;—*Trunt*, *the drinking*; *Trant*, *drink*, *potion*.

|| In the first example, however, and in many similar cases, it is difficult to ascertain which is the primitive and which the derivative.

Obs. Transitive verbs derived in this way inflect the vowel of their primitive (if capable of it), not only when derived from other verbs (as, *dörren*, to dry, from *dorren*, to get dry, to wither—see also § 84. *Obs.* 2.), but frequently also when derived from nouns, especially from adjectives. Thus, from *Stahl*, steel; *Raum*, space; *hohl*, hollow; *frumm*, crooked; *jähm*, tame, come the verbs *stählen*, to steel, harden; *räumen*, to evacuate; *höhlen*, to make hollow; *frümmen*, to curb; *jähmen*, to tame. On the other hand, neuter verbs of this kind seldom inflect the vowel of their primitive; and there are several instances in which from the same primitive two verbs, a transitive (or reflective) and a neuter verb, are derived, distinguished only by the vowel inflection. Thus, from the adjectives *frank*, sick; *warm*, warm; *laut*, aloud, come the verbs, *franken*, to be sick, and *fränken*, to grieve, vex; *erwarmen*, to get warm, and *erwärmen*, to warm; *lauten*, to sound (in an intransitive sense), and *läuten*, to ring (the bell).

2. By means of prefixes and annexes; the former, with the exception of *ge*, are used in the formation of verbs only; the latter chiefly in that of substantives and adjectives. The derivatives formed by annexes containing the vowels *e* or *i* (as *e*, *er*, *ig*, *lich*, &c. §§ 112 & 113), frequently inflect the vowel of the primitive, especially diminutives; but the derivatives formed by any of the other annexes (as *sam*, *ung*, *ei*, *heit*, &c.), or by prefixes, leave the primitive vowel unchanged*. Except those in *lein* (§ 32. *Obs.*), and collective nouns formed by the prefix *ge* (§ 115), which always inflect the primitive vowel.

ANNEXES OF SUBSTANTIVES.

§ 112. Of the annexes *chen* and *lein*, as forming diminutives, we have already treated § 32. *Obs.*; and of *inn*, as forming feminines from masculines, § 33. The annexes treated of in this section form either abstract (see however *Obs.* 3.) or collective nouns, with the exception of *er* and *ling*, which, for the most part, form nouns denoting persons. The principal annexes by which substantives are formed are the following:—

* Such derivatives as *Abgötterei*, idolatry; *Brüderschaft*, fraternity, and a few others, are derived from the plural of their primitive nouns (*Abgötter*, *Brüder*), and form therefore no exception.

1.—*e*. By this annex abstract substantives are derived from verbs, and from primary* adjectives denoting a physical quality; the latter derivatives inflect the vowel of the primitive, but not the former; as, *Liebe, love*; *Sage, saying*; *Gabe, gift*, from the verbs, *lieben, sagen, gab* (imperfect of *geben*—see § 111. *Obs.*); and *Tiefe, depth*; *Länge, length*; *Größe, greatness*, from the adjectives, *tief, lang, and groß*. Some of those derived from verbs denote the instrument of the action expressed by their primitives; as, *die Schneide, the edge, sharp end*; *die Binde, band or bandages*; *die Falle, the trap, &c.*

2.—*ei†* and —*erei†* (Engl. *y* and *ery*) form substantives from others, and from verbs,—the former annex being used when the primitive ends in *ei* or *er*, the latter in all other cases. They denote 1.) a state, or an action—generally with the accessory idea of obloquy; as, *Räuberei, robbery*; *Sklaverei, slavery*; *Tölperei, doltishness*,—from the nouns, *Räuber, Sklave, and Tölpel*; *Heuchelei, hypocrisy*; *Raserei, madness*,—from the verbs *heucheln* and *rasen*. Sometimes a disagreeable frequency or repetition is implied; as, *die Lauferei, die Schwägerei, the (tiresome) running, talking*. 2.) The usual place of the occupation, or the abode of the person, expressed by the primitive; as, *Druckerei, printing-office*; *Brauerei, brewery*; *Fischerei, fishery*; *Einsiedelei* (or *Einsiedlerei*, from *Einsiedler, hermit*), *hermitage*. A few denote art, or craft; as, *Mahlerei, painting*; *Schneiderei, a tailor's business*. A few others have a collective import; as, *Reiterei, cavalry*; *Länderei, lands*.

3.—*er* answers to the English annex *er*, and sometimes to the noun *man‡*. It forms derivatives from verbs and substantives (also from numerals; for which see p. 118); as, *Leser, reader*; *Träger, porter*; *Kutscher, coachman*; *Bürger, citizen, burgher*,—from *lesen, to read*; *tragen, to carry*; *Kutsche, coach, &c.*;—and further from proper names of places and countries, to designate an inhabitant or native of that place (see *Obs.* 4). Some few of these derivatives insert *n* before the annex *er*; as, *Schuldner, debtor*; *Hüttner, cottager*,—from *Schuld, debt*; *Hütte, cottage*.

Obs. 1. In several instances the Germans use the participle present substantively, and the English a derivative in *er*; as, *der Reisende*,

* That is, not derived from other words.

† Though *ei* in these endings originated in a corruption of the foreign *ie* or *ia* (see note, p. 30), this spelling is now used in the above annexes only in forming German words from others; but in words adopted entirely from the French, or the learned languages, the original ending *ie* or *ia* is now always written *ie*; as, *Artillerie, artillery*; *Astronomie, astronomy*—except *Tyrannie, tyranny*; *litanei, litany*; *Sacristei, sacristy*, and perhaps a few others. We may here notice also, that the words derived from Latin nouns in *tas*, which in English end in *ty*, end in German in *tät*; as, *Urbanität, urbanity*.

‡ Originally *er* signified *man*, and is supposed to be identical with the pronoun *er, he*.

the traveller; *der Leidende, the sufferer*; *die Liebenden, the (two) lovers, &c.*

4.—heit and —feit (Engl. *hood* or *head*) form abstract nouns from adjectives, and a few from substantives*, heit being used when the primitive either is without any annex, or ends in *en* or *ern*, and feit in all other cases; as, *Blindheit, blindness*; *Gesundheit, health*; *Schüchternheit, coyness*; *Häßlichkeit, ugliness*; *Langsamkeit, slowness*,—from the adjectives *blind, gesund, &c.*, and *Kindheit, childhood*; *Gotttheit, god-head*; *Mannheit, manhood*,—from the substantives *Kind, Gott, &c.*—Those derived from adjectives ending in *los* or *haft*, and a few derived from others, for the most part ending in a lingual (§ 7.), insert *ig* before the annex *feit*; as, *Hülfslosigkeit, helplessness*; *Dauerhaftigkeit, durability*; *Mattigkeit, weakness*; *Geschwindigkeit, swiftness*; *Süßigkeit, sweetness*,—from the adjectives, *hülfslos, dauerhaft, matt, geschwind*, and *süß*.

5.—ling answers mostly to the same annex in English, forming substantives from verbs, adjectives, and other substantives, and generally imparting the accessory idea of dependence, or littleness, and sometimes that of contempt, especially in those derived from substantives; as, *Säugling, suckling*; *Mietling, hireling*; *Findling, foundling*; *Zögling, pupil, élève*; *Neuling, novice*; *Liebling, darling, favourite*; *Bärtling, an effeminate man*; *Willing, willing*; *Dichterling, poetaster*. Several of these derivatives, however, do not imply any helplessness or contempt; as, *Kämmerling, chamberlain*; *Nachfömmling, descendant*; *Zwilling, twin, &c.*

6.—niß (Engl. *ness*) forms nouns of various meanings, from verbs and past participles; as, *Erlaubniß, permission*; *Ereigniß, event*; *Hinderniß, hindrance*,—from the verbs *erlauben, &c.*—*Gedächtniß, memory*; *Gefängniß, prison*,—from the past participles *gedacht, gefangen*. These are derived from adjectives: *Finsterniß, darkness*; *Geheimniß, secret*; and *Wildniß, wilderness*.

7.—schaft (Engl. *ship*). Most substantives of this ending are derived from others, but some from adjectives and past participles. They are either abstract or collective nouns; as, *Freundschaft, friendship*; *Botschaft, message*; *Bereitschaft, readiness*; *Gefangenschaft, captivity*,—from *Freund, friend*; *Bote, messenger*; *bereit, ready*; and *gefangen, imprisoned*. Examples of collectives are, *Die Bürgerschaft, the body of citizens*; *Mannschaft, crew*; *Barschaft, cash*.

* Hence there are few nouns in *heit* answering to English derivatives in *hood*, the latter being derived chiefly from substantives. On the other hand, in English, the formation of abstract nouns from adjectives being effected principally by the ending *ness*, whilst the German annex *niß* is very rarely so used, most English nouns in *ness* correspond to German nouns in *heit*, *reit*, or *e*, and very few only to such as end in *niß*.

8.—*thum* (Engl. *dom*). Nouns of this termination are derived from other substantives—a few from adjectives. They denote either dominion or possession of their primitive, or, more commonly, the abstract idea of it; as, *Herzogthum*, *dukedom*; *Eigenthum*, *property*; *Heidenthum*, *heathendom*; *Christenthum*, *Christianity* (for *Christendom* we more generally say *Christenheit*); *Königthum*, *royalty* (not *kingdom*, which answers to *Königreich*); *Alterthum*, *antiquity*.

9.—*ung* (Engl. *ing*, Anglo-Saxon *ing*, or *ung*). Nearly all nouns of this ending are derived from verbs, and denote the abstract action of their primitive; as, *die Rechnung*, *the reckoning*; *Warnung*, *warning*; *Zeichnung*, *drawing*; *Hoffnung*, *hope*; *Annäherung*, *approach*. A few are derived from substantives and adjectives, and are mostly used in a collective sense; as *Waldung*, *woodland*; *Stallung*, *stabling*; *Festung*, *fortress*; *Niederung*, *low land*,—from *Wald*, *wood*; *Stall*, *stable*; *fest*, *firm*; and *nieder*, *low*.

Obs. 2. The verbal nouns in *ung* are of a later origin than those without any annex (§ 111.), which are perhaps coeval with the verb itself. The latter, therefore, are related only to primary verbs, either simple, or compounded with particles or prefixes (which latter, originally, were likewise separate particles); whilst the former are formed chiefly from derivative verbs, which denote an extension or modification of the primary idea. Thus, *der Tausch*, *the exchange*, from the primary verb *tauschen*;—*die Täuschung*, *the illusion*, from the derivative verb *täuschen* (see § 111.). There are, accordingly, many verbs of which both these verbal nouns are in use, the one without an annex having the simpler and intransitive import, and the other with the annex *ung* the transitive, or extended signification of the verb; as, *Versuch*, *attempt*;—*Versuchung*, *temptation*,—from the verb *versuchen*, *to attempt*, and *to tempt*; *der Spalt*, *split, chink*;—*die Spaltung*, *division, disunion*; *Zug*, *tug, pull, draft, stroke, feature*;—*Ziehung*, *the act of drawing* (as of the lottery). It may partly be seen from the last example, that the verbals without annexes have often extended their verbal signification, whilst those in *ung* keep more closely to the import of the verb*. See however *Obs. 3.*

Obs. 3. In German, as in other languages, all kinds of abstract nouns are, more or less frequently, used in a concrete sense—that is, to denote things characterized by the action or quality expressed by the noun in its primary import. Thus, *Ladung* denotes both *the act of lading* and *that which is laden as the cargo*; *Verzierung*, *the act of ornamenting*, and *ornament*; *Estrafe*, *punishment*, and also *fine*; *Gang*, *walk*, and also *the place walked upon* (passage, gallery, &c.); *Seltenheit*, *rareness*, and also *curiosity* (i.e. a curious thing).

* Compare this with § 17, *Obs.*

Obs. 4. In conclusion, we will add a few remarks regarding names of nations, religions, and sects. From the name of the country, that of its inhabitants is derived* in the following manner: 1.) If the name of the country ends in *en* not preceded by *i*, or in *rn* (as is the case with most provinces of Germany), the national name is formed by omitting the final *n* of the former; as, *Sachsen, Saxony*,—*ein Sachse, a Saxon*; *Baiern, Bavaria*,—*ein Baier, a Bavarian*. Thus, also, *Preuss, Prussian*; *Schwede, Swede*; *Böhme, Bohemian*; *Ungar, Hungarian*,—from the names of their respective countries, *Preussen, Schweden, Böhmen, Ungarn*. Except *Aegypten, Egypt*, and a few names ending in *gen*; as, *Norwegen, Norway*; *Thüringen, Thuringia, &c.*, which in their derivatives change the final *n* into *r*; *ein Aegypter* (also *Aegyptier*), *an Egyptian*; *ein Norweger, a Norwegian*. 2.) But if the name of the country ends in *ien*, the final *n* is changed into *r* in the national name; as, *Spanien, Spain*; *Schlesien, Silesia*,—*Spanier, Spaniard*; *Schlesier, Silesian*. Except, *ein Italiäner, an Italian*; *ein Asiate, an Asiatic*; *Araber, Arab*; *Perser, Persian*,—from *Italien, Asien, &c.* 3.) In all other cases the name of the inhabitants is formed by annexing *er* to that of the country; as, *Oesterreich, Austria*,—*ein Oesterreicher, an Austrian*. Thus also, *ein Holländer, a Dutchman*; *ein Schweizer, a Swiss*; *ein Tyroler, a Tyrolese*,—from *Holland, Schweiz, Tyrol*. The name of the inhabitants of a town is likewise formed by adding *er* to that of the latter; as, *ein Pariser, a Parisian*; *ein Wiener, Dresdener, &c., an inhabitant of Vienna (Wien), Dresden, &c.*† There are many exceptions to this third rule; thus we say, *ein Franzose, a Frenchman*; *Russe, Russian*; *Griech, Greek*; *Däne, Dane*; though the names of their respective countries are, *Frankreich, Rußland, Griechenland, and Dänemark*. (See also § 52. *Obs. 3.*) The principal exceptions, however, are those cases in which the name of the country ends in *a* or is the same as that of the metropolis, in most of which the names of the inhabitants are the same as in English with the addition of the ending *er*; as, *ein Afrikaner, an African*; *Spartaner, Spartan*; *Neapolitaner, Neapolitan*; *Venetianer, Venetian*; *Malteser, Maltese*; *Genueser, Genoese*. We say, however, *Hannoveraner, Hanoverian*; *Römer,*

* Though originally the name of the country is often derived from that of the nation inhabiting it, at a later period the latter is generally somewhat changed by the former. Thus, *England, England*, originally means *the land of the Angles*; yet now its inhabitants are called *Engländer*. In some cases both the original name and that derived from the country are in use; as, *Schotte and Schottländer, Scotchman*.

† When the names of towns form a component (for as such they may be considered in the following and similar instances), they likewise take *er*; as, *die Leipziger Messe, the Leipzig fair*; *der Wiener Congress, the Congress at Vienna*. (See also § 51. *Obs. 6.*)

Roman; and *Mailänder, Milanese*.—The names of nations and tribes that are little known, are also the same as in English; as, *ein Mongol, Kalmuck, Cannibal, &c.*

Nearly the same is the case with the names of religions, sects, and societies, i. e., in both languages they are the same, with the exception that in German *er* is annexed to those names which in English end in *an, in, or ic* (in the latter case *c* is changed into *f*); as, *Protestant, Calvinist, Methodist, Jesuit, Hussite, Lutheraner (Lutheran), Arminianer, Mahomedaner, Jacobiner, Gnostiker (Gnostic), Cyniker, &c.* Except, *Catholic* (which does not take *er*); *Christ, Christian* (also, *Christ*); *Jude, Jew*; *Heide, Heathen*; and those ending in English in *ean* or *ee*, which take *äer* in German; as, *Epicuräer, Epicurean*; *Pharisäer, Pharisee, &c.*

DERIVATIVE ADJECTIVES.

§ 113. Adjectives are formed from verbs, substantives, or other adjectives, chiefly by means of the following annexes. The adjectives derived from verbs, generally, imply relations of the potential mood (§ 82.), namely, capacity, obligation, or disposition,—see the following, *-bar, -lich, -haft, and -sam*. The annexes of such verbal adjectives are therefore equivalent to the auxiliary verbs, *fam, mag, soll, and muß* (see *Obs. 1.*). Several verbal adjectives however have the import of the present participle (see the following, *-ig and -lich*).

The annexes added to substantives denote, principally, the various relations of the genitive case, such as possession or belonging to, origin, &c., and are therefore equivalent to the preposition *von, of or from*; of which import almost all the following annexes afford examples.

Adjectives derived from other adjectives mostly denote diminution in degree (see the annex *lich*). Some imply a disposition; as, *wahr, true, —wahrhaft, veracious*.

Obs. 1. In adjectives derived from verbs, or verbal nouns, the primitive is frequently used in a passive sense; thus, “questionable” denotes *what may be questioned*; “punishable”, *what may be punished*; “unbearable”, *what cannot be borne*; and as the German and English do not always agree in this respect, attention must be paid to usage. Thus, “suspicious”, is used both actively (*given to suspect*), and pas-

sively (*suspected*). In the former sense it must be rendered by *argwöhnisch*, in the latter by *verdächtig*. “Notable”, *actively*, is *aufmerksam*, *ämsig*,—*passively*, *merkwürdig*. On the contrary, *verächtlich* denotes both *contemptuous* and *contemptible*; *beweglich*, *moving* and *movable*. *Sicht*, *sight*, is used *actively* in *vorsichtig*, *cautious*, and *passively* in *durchsichtig*, *transparent*. Similar to this is the practice, common in all languages, of applying to an act a quality which can belong only to the agent; as, “a daring robbery”, “a prudent action”.

The following are the principal annexes by which adjectives are formed:—

1.—*bar** answers in most cases to the English ending *able*, or *ible*, denoting *capacity*; and forms adjectives chiefly from verbs; as, *brennbar*, *combustible*; *fehlbar*, *fallible*; *streichbar*, *capable of bearing arms*; *hörbar*, *audible*; *heilbar*, *curable*; *schiffbar*, *navigable*,—from the verbs *brennen*, *fehlen*, &c. Some are derived from substantives; in which derivatives *bar* denotes *bearing*, or *productive of*; as, *fruchtbar*, *fruitful*, *fertile*; *zinsbar*, *tributary*; *wunderbar*, *wonderful*,—from the nouns *Frucht*, *fruit*, &c.

2.—*en* (Engl. *en*) denotes *made of*; and forms adjectives from substantives only; as, *seiden*, *silken*; *wollen*, *woollen*; *golden*, *golden*; *kupfern* (for *kupferen*), *of copper*. Some take *ern* instead of *en*; as, *hölzern*, *wooden*; *bleiern*, *leaden*, &c.

3.—*haft* (related to *haben*, and to *haften*, *to stick*) forms adjectives both from nouns and verbs; and denotes, 1.) *Possession*; as, *fehlerhaft*, *faulty*; *sieghaft*, *victorious*; *mangelhaft*, *defective*; *zweifelhaft*, *doubtful*; *gewissenhaft*, *conscientious*,—from *Fehler*, *fault*, &c. 2.) *Likeness*; as, *fabelhaft*, *fabulous*; *meisterhaft*, *masterly*; *riesenhaft*, *gigantic*. 3.) *Disposition*; chiefly from verbs; as, *plauderhaft*, *talkative*; *zaghaft*, *timorous*; *flatterhaft*, *volatile*, *fickle*,—from the verbs *plaudern*, &c.

4.—*icht* forms adjectives from concrete substantives only; and implies a participation in the nature of its primitive; as, *thöricht*, *foolish*; *lumpicht*, *shabby*, *beggarly*,—from *Thor*, *fool*; *Lumpen*, *rag*. Most of these adjectives, however, denote characteristics of substance; as, *körnicht*, *granulous*; *thonicht*, *clayey*; *salzicht*, *saltish*.

Obs. 2. This annex is often used indiscriminately with the following, *ig*; as, *holzig*, or *holzicht*, *woody*. According to Adelung and other grammarians, however, this usage is objectionable; and they confine *icht* to the import of similarity, whilst *ig* implies the actual possession of what is expressed by the primitive. Accordingly, *hornicht* means

* This ending is in most adjectives considered as the root of the obsolete *baren*, *to bear*, and, figuratively, *to admit*; and in some cases to be the particle *bar*, *bare*, *naked*, figuratively, *open* or *exposed to*.

horny, hornlike; but *hörnig, horned*; as, *zweihörnig, two-horned*. Thus also we should say, *beizichte Pflanzen, stringy plants*; but *eine holzige Gegend, a woody country*.

5.—*ig* (Engl. *y*, Anglo-Saxon *ig*) is related to *eigen, own*; and hence denotes *possessed of* (a thing, or habit). It forms adjectives from nouns and verbs; as, *mutbig, courageous*; *fleißig, industrious*,—from the nouns *Muth* and *Fleiß*; *stößig, goring, butting*; *gebörig, belonging*,—from the verbs *stoßen* and *gehören*. It may be seen from the last examples that the verbal adjectives in *ig* have the import of a participle present.—When annexed to concrete nouns, *ig* implies that the primitive forms a component part of another object (an import-peculiar to this annex); as, *säftig, juicy*; *waldig, woody*; *gebirgig, mountainous*,—from *Saft, juice*; *Wald, wood, &c.* (See also *Obs. 2.*) This annex is exclusively used, like *ed* in English, when adjectives are formed from two words otherwise not compounded; as, *vierfüßig, four-footed*; *einäugig, one-eyed*; *doppeltzüngig, double-tongued*; *einseitig, one-sided, partial*; *langbeinig, long-legged*. Particles, too, are turned by this ending into adjectives; as, *vorig, former*, from *vor, before*.—See also § 97.

6.—*isch* (Engl. *ish*) forms adjectives from primitives of different descriptions. 1.) From abstract nouns denoting *faulty* dispositions, and from names of living beings implying some similar idea; as, *tüftisch, malicious*; *neidisch, envious*; *bäuerisch, boorish*; *diebisch, thievish*; *viehisch, brutish*. There are even some instances in which adjectives both in *isch* and *lich* are formed from the same primitives; the former denoting a bad, the latter a good quality; as, *findisch, childish*,—*findlich, filial*, also *simple as a child*; *weibisch, effeminate*,—*weiblich, feminine*; *herrisch, imperious, arrogant*,—*herrlich, excellent*. However, many adjectives derived from nouns in *er*, and all from compounds with *Mann*, imply no obloquy; as, *mablerisch, picturesque*; *rednerisch, rhetorical*; *kaufmännisch, mercantile*; *bergmännisch, miner-like*,—from *Mahler, painter, &c.* 2.) From primitives denoting locality, especially from geographical names; as, *ausländisch, foreign*; *irdisch, earthly*; *himmlisch, heavenly, &c.*,—from *Ausland, foreign countries*; *Erde, earth, &c.* *Rheinische Weine, Rhenish wines*; *die Pyrenäischen Gebirge, the Pyrenean mountains*; *Kölnisches Wasser, Cologne water*,—from *der Rhein, the Rhine*; *die Pyrenäen, the Pyrenees*; *Cöln, Cologne*. 3.) From proper names of persons: *die Kantische Philosophie, the Kantian philosophy*. 4.) From names of nations, religions, sects, and other societies, in which derivations the endings *e*, *er*, *ier*, and *iser* (or *ise*) of the primitive (see § 112. *Obs. 4.*) are mostly omitted; as, *gothisch, Gothic*; *französisch, French*; *römisch, Roman*; *spanisch, Spanish*; *ungarisch, Hungarian*,—from *Gothe, Goth*; *Franzose, Frenchman, &c.*; *protestantisch, protestant*; *katholisch, catholic*; *methodistisch, methodistical*; *jesuitisch, jesuitical*; *cynisch, cynic*; *jacobinisch, Jacobinical*,—from

der Protestant, Katholik, &c. Except heidnisch, *heathen*, and christlich, *Christian*,—from the substantives Heide and Christ. Lastly, this annex is used with most adjectives derived from foreign languages, which, for the most part, end in English in *ic* or *ical*; as, mathematisch, *mathematical*; komisch, *comic*; tragisch, *tragic*; practisch, *practical*; militärisch, *military*.

7.—lich (Engl. *ly*, Anglo-Saxon *lic*) forms adjectives from substantives, from other adjectives, and from verbs. Those derived from substantives answer frequently to English adjectives in *ly*, or *like*, or *ful* implying *conformity*, or *belonging to*; as, fürstlich, *princely*; körperlich, *bodily*; winterlich, *winter-like*; gesellig, *lawful*; jugendlich, *youthful*; häuslich, *domestic*,—from the nouns, Fürst, *prince*, &c. Some are rendered in English by a prepositional phrase; as, mündlich, *by word of mouth*; buchstäblich, *to the letter, literal*. In most adjectives derived from abstract nouns lich denotes *possessed* or *full of*, often with the accessory idea of causation; as, abscheulich, *abominable*; gefährlich, *dangerous*; rühmlich, *glorious*; verdienstlich, *meritorious*; glücklich, *lucky, fortunate*. Annexed to adjectives it denotes *diminution*; as, röthlich, *reddish*; süßlich, *sweetish*; ältlich, *elderly*,—from roth, *red*, &c. In some of them it has the accessory idea of disposition; as, fleinlich, *trivial, mean*; reinlich, *cleanly*. In verbal adjectives lich answers, like *bar*, to the English ending *able* or *ible*; denoting capacity, fitness, or obligation; as, begreiflich, *conceivable*; erblich, *inheritable*; thunlich, *feasible*; verantwörtlich, *answerable*; verzeihlich, *pardonable*. Other verbals in lich have the import of the participle present, and often with the accessory idea of disposition; as, verbindlich, *obliging*; unaufhörlich, *incessant*; ergötzlich, *charming, delightful*; tauglich, *proper, convenient*.—Some others partake more of the nature of a participle past; as, vorgeblich, *pretended*; erforderlich, *requisite, necessary*; ärgerlich, both *exasperated* and *vexed*.—We may notice also that in some adjectives nt, or t, and in a few er, is inserted between the root and the annex; as, wöchentlich, *weekly*; öffentlich, *public*; leserlich, *legible*,—from Woche, *open*, and lesen.

Obs. 3. With adjectives derived from primitives ending in *l*, the annex *ig* is often used instead of *lich*. Thus, we find adelig, *of nobility*, and adellich (analogous to bürgerlich, *civic*); untadelig, *irreprehensible*, for untadellich (analogous, to löblich, *laudable*). Adjectives in lich change in composition this ending into *ig* (see -ig, p. 280); as, nützlich, *useful*; gemeinnützig, *of general use*; jährlich, *yearly*; täglich*, *daily*; and yet we say, das dreitägige Fieber, *the intermittent* (literally *every third day's*)

* This annex was formerly often used in the sense of *every*; which import it has now both in English and German in nouns referring to time, as in

fever; die fünfzigjährige Feier, *the jubilee*. Generally, however, when *ig* and *lich* are annexed to the same primitives, the former implies an intrinsic quality, the latter an extrinsic circumstance; as, *zeitig*, *ripe*,—*zeitlich*, *early*, *betimes*; *verständig*, *intelligent*,—*verständlich*, *intelligible*; *sinnig*, *having sense* (chiefly used in compounds; as, *unsinnig*, *nonsensical*, *mad*),—*sinnlich*, *by means of the senses*; *gläubig*, *believing*, *faithful* (in religion),—*gläublich*, *credible*.

8.—*sam* (Engl. *some*) denotes a disposition, or readiness; and forms adjectives chiefly from verbs; as, *folgsam*, *obsequious*, *obedient*; *wachsam*, *watchful*; *wirksam*, *efficacious*; *arbeitsam*, *industrious*; *enthaltensam*, *abstemious*; *genügsam*, *content*, *easy*,—from the verbs *folgen*, *wachen*, &c. Some are derived from nouns; as, *mühsam*, *laborious*, *troublesome*; *bedachtsam*, *cautious*; *langsam*, *slow*.—The greater part of the adjectives in *sam*, as may partly be seen from these examples, denote qualities betraying a *careful*, but *moderate* and *forbearing* mind. Hence *rathsam*, *advisable*, mostly implies precaution—for instance, in anticipating an inconvenience;—*räthlich*, *advisable* for meeting a present one; *ein sparsames Mahl*, *a frugal meal*; *ein spärliches Mahl*, *a scanty meal*.

Obs. 4. It will easily be perceived that to understand the exact meaning of any derivative, its *immediate* primitive must be kept in view. Thus, from the above derivative adjectives, with the exception of those in *en*, *icht*, and *isch*, abstract substantives may be formed by annexing *heit* (§ 112.), which differ from kindred abstracts formed immediately from the root. For instance, from *empfinden*, *to feel*, come the three adjectives *empfindbar*, *able to feel*, also *able to be felt*; *empfindlich*, *easily affected*, *sensitive*, *touchy*; and *empfindsam*, *sentimental*; and from these are again formed the substantives *Empfindbarkeit*, *capacity of feeling*; *Empfindlichkeit*, *quick susceptibility of feeling*; *Empfindsamkeit*, *sentimentality*; all differing from *Empfindung*, *feeling*, derived immediately from the verb *empfinden*. So also from abstract nouns in *schaft* are frequently derived adjectives in *lich*, which must not be confounded with those derived from the same primitive as the noun in *schaft*. Thus, from *gesellen*, *to associate*, are derived, *gesellig*, *sociable*, and *Gesellschaft*, *society*; and from the latter again, *gesellschaftlich*, *social*; as, *der gesellschaftliche* (not *gesellige*) *Vertrag*, *the social compact*. *Freundlich*, and *Freundlichkeit*, imply *kindness*, or a *pleasantness to our senses*; but *freundschaftlich* implies *in accordance with friendship*. Thus we may say, *ein freundliches*—but not *freundschaftliches*—*Zimmer*, *a pleasant room*.

the above examples; whilst the corresponding nouns in *ig* imply *age* or *duration*; as, *ein jähriges Kalb*, *a calf of one year old*; *eine dreitägige Schlacht*, *a battle of three days*.

VERBAL ANNEXES.

§ 114. Of these we have to notice only the endings *el* and *ig*, which are inserted before the verbal inflections (§ 73.).

1.—*el* denotes a diminution in degree; also weakness and affectation. Most verbs with *el* are formed either from nouns (both substant. and adjunct.), or from other verbs; as, *wiseln*, to say smart things; *schwänzel*, to wag the tail,—from *Wig*, wit, &c.;—*fränkel*, to be sickly; *frömmel*, to affect piety; *ältel*, to become oldish,—from the adjectives, *frank*, sick; *fromm*, pious, &c.;—*empfindel*, to be sentimental; *lächel*, to smile,—from *empfinden*, to feel; *lachen*, to laugh.

2.—*ig*. This annex has no influence on the signification of the verb, but seems to serve merely as a connective of the primitive and the letters of inflection, as it does when inserted before *feit* (see p. 275). Thus from *Stein*, stone; *Pein*, pain; *rein*, clean, come the verbs *steinigen*, to stone; *peinigen*, to torment; *reinigen*, to clean. Hence there are some instances in which two forms, with and without *ig*, are in use without any difference of import; as, *endigen* and *enden*, to finish; *vereinigen* and *vereinen*, to unite.

Obs. Several verbs are formed by the annex *er*; but the primitives of these verbs have become obsolete, with the exception of a few; such as, *folgern*, to infer; *räuchern*, to perfume, to smoke-dry; *altern*, to become old, &c.,—from *folgen*, to follow; *rauchen*, to smoke; *alt*, old.—Verbs adopted from foreign languages take the annex *ir* (or *ier*—§ 23.); as, *philosophiren*, to philosophize; *marschiren*, to march; *gratuliren*, to congratulate.

PREFIXES.

§ 115. The prefixes, or unaccented particles prefixed to other words, are six*, viz. *be*, *ent*, *er*, *ver*, *ge*, and *zer*. With the exception of *ge* (which see), they are used only in the formation of verbs; and therefore nouns with prefixes are generally derived from verbs. Thus, *Verfäufer*, seller, is derived by the annex *er* from *verkaufen*, to sell, and not by the prefix *ver* from *Käufer*, buyer. Regarding their import, we observe as follows:—

* The prefix *emp*, mentioned in § 74, occurs only in these three verbs, *empfangen*, to receive; *empfehlen*, to recommend; and *empfinden*, to feel.

1. *be*—* (Engl. *be*) implies, 1.) *Upon, over, on all sides* (see also *Obs.* 1.), just like *be* in English; as, *bestreuen, to bestrew* (the ground with flowers; which is equivalent to “strew flowers upon, or all over, the ground”); *beseßen, to beset*; *beladen, to load* (a ship); *befäen, to sow* (a field); *befhängen, to hang* (a wall with pictures); *bewachen, to watch* (over); *befcheinen, to shine upon*; *bedienen, to wait upon*,—from *streuen, to strew*; *setzen, to set*; *laden, to load* (goods); *fäen, to sow* (corn); *hängen, to hang* (a picture); *wachen, to be awake*; *scheinen, to shine*; *dienen, to serve*. As a figurative use of “all over”, we may consider the signification of 2.) *Intenseness or solicitude*, implying either an immediate purpose, or opposition from the object of the action. Thus, *lehren* denotes *to teach*,—*belehren, to set* (one) *right*; *reden, to speak*,—*bereden, to persuade*; *fragen, to ask*,—*befragen, to consult*; *zwingen, to force*,—*bezingen, to conquer*. Thus, also, *befürchten, to apprehend*,—from *fürchten, to fear*; *bedenken, to consider* (with the view of taking a resolution). 3.) *To impart, to bestow*; as, *beleben, to animate, to bring to life*; *benennen, to name, to give a name*,—from *leben, to live*, and *nennen, to call*. Most verbs of this import, however, are derived from nouns; as, *befaiten, to string*; *beauftragen, to commission*; *befreien, to deliver*,—from *Gaite, string*; *Auftrag, commission*; *frei, free*. Some of them take, moreover, the annex *ig*; as, *befriedigen, to appease*; *befestigen, to fortify*,—from *Friede, peace*; *fest, firm*.

Obs. 1. Most verbs with *be* imply, as may be seen from the preceding examples, that the action is directed to an object with which the primitive verb has no immediate connexion, being either intransitive, or directed to another object—see *bewachen* and *bestreuen* in the above examples. Hence, not only are verbs with *be*, for the most part, of transitive import, but generally imply, moreover, animadversion, or an intentional action. Thus, *trügen, to deceive*; *fühlen, to feel*; *nützen, to be of use*; *sehen, to see*; may all be conceived as *involuntary* actions (we say, *der Schein trügt, appearance deceives*; *ich fühle einen Zugwind, I feel a draught of wind*); but, *betrügen, to cheat*; *befühlen, to feel* (with one’s hand); *benützen, to profit by*, imply *intention* or *purpose*.

2. *ent*—† (Engl. *un*) implies generally, a separation, or disengaging.

* It is the same particle as the preposition *bei, by*, which formerly had a more extensive import than now; but even its present significations (§ 105) are often traceable in the prefix. Thus, *sich besinnen, to recollect, to bethink*, may be resolved into, *bei sich sinnen, to think to oneself*. In *besuchen, to visit*, *be* has like *bei* the import of *home*. However, those verbs to which both *be* and *bei* are prefixed have always a different import with each particle. Thus, *betommen* denotes *to receive*, literally *to come by*—*beistommen, to get at* (a thing); *bewohnen, to inhabit*—*beistohnen, to assist at*; *bestehen, to consist*—*beistehen, to assist, to stand by*.

† The original form in Old German is *ant* (Gr. *ἀντι*), and in Anglo-

Its particular significations are, 1.) A *privation* or *dispossession* of what the primitive expresses, similar to the English *un* or *dis*: entwurzeln, to *unroot*; entheiligen, to *desecrate*; entehren, to *dishonour*; enthaupten, to *behead*; entschuldigen, to *excuse*; entbinden, to *unbind*. 2.) *Away*, removal from out of the reach or power of an object: entlaufen, to *run away from*; entfliehen, to *escape by flight* (fliehen, to *flee*, does not imply *escape*); entführen, to *abduct*; entlassen, to *dismiss*; entziehen, to *withdraw*. 3.) A *motion from within* an object, an *origin*: entspringen, to *spring forth*, to *originate*; entstehen, to *take rise*; sich entzünden, to *ignite*.

3. er—* (Engl. *a*) denotes, 1.) *Coming within the reach of our perception*, and hence also *emerging into existence*, and *producing*: erscheinen, to *make its appearance*, to *be seen*; erschallen, or ertönen, to *resound*, to *be heard*; erblicken, to *catch sight of*, to *descry*; erschaffen, to *create*; erfinden, to *invent*; erdenken, to *excogitate*; errichten, to *erect*, to *establish*; erzeugen, to *produce*. 2.) *Attainment or acquisition* of an object by means of the action denoted by the simple verb: erreichen, to *reach* (up to an object); ereilen, to *overtake by speed*; erhaschen, to *catch*; erfechten, to *get or gain by fighting*; sein Brod ertanzen, erbetteln, to *get one's bread by dancing, begging*. 3.) *Continuation of the action* denoted by the primitive, *till the accomplishment of its aim*: erlernen, to *learn* (anything) *entirely*; erfragen, to *find out by* (repeated) *inquiry*; erforschen, to *explore*; erleben, to *live to see* (an event). Thus, also, einen Berg ersteigen, to *ascend* (to the top of) *a hill*; but, besteigen denotes simply *to mount* (a horse, or a hill). 4.) A *coming or bringing*

Saxon *and*, which forms this particle always preserved before nouns; and the former is still found in Antwort, *answer* (Anglo-S. *andwyrda*); and Antlitz, *face* (Anglo-S. *andwlita*). As a verbal prefix the particle was changed in Anglo-S. into *on*, which in English has been changed again into *un*, thus coinciding in form with the simple negative *un* (Anglo-Saxon *un*) prefixed to adjectives. It will therefore be remembered that the former answers to the German *ent* (sometimes to *ab*); the latter is also in German *un*. Thus, *unsealed*, as the past participle of *to unseal*, is *entsiegelt*; but when an adjective (equivalent to *not sealed*), it is *ungesiegelt* in German. The same applies to such words as *unmasked*, *unpeopled*, *unarmed*, &c. &c., for which there are always in German different forms for the privative, and the simply negative, significations.

* In Old German it had the different forms of *ur*, *ar*, *ir*, and *er*, of which *ur* still exists as a nominal prefix; as, Urquell, *fountain-head*; Ursprung, *origin*, &c. In Anglo-Saxon the forms of this prefix are *or* and *a*; the former being prefixed to nouns, the latter to verbs. Originally this particle was a preposition, denoting *out*; and just as *out* is, with regard to the spectator, used in two opposite directions, namely, *towards* him (as in "to break out", "to come out"), and *away from* him, or from the present moment, to the opposite end (as in "to look out", "to hold out"); so the prefix denotes both *emergency*, and *continuation to the end*—see the three first significations.—This particle is justly supposed to be related to the Latin *oriri*.

into the state or feeling expressed by the primitive: *erwachen*, to awake; *erschrecken*, to be frightened, to frighten; *erzürnen*, to make angry; *erstaunen*, to be astonished, to astonish. Most of the verbs of this import are derived from adjectives; as, *erkranken*, to fall ill; *erkalten*, to become cold; *erblinden*, to become blind; *ermatten*, to grow weak; *erröthen*, to blush; *erweichen*, to soften; from the adjectives *frank*, *falt*, &c. 5.) A restoration, or a recalling of a former impression, like the English *re*; as, *erquickten*, or *erfrischen*, to refresh; *erneuen*, to renovate; *erneuern*, to renew; *erinnern*, to remind; *ersetzen*, to replace; *erlassen*, to remit; *erlösen*, to release; *sich erholen*, to recover; *sich ermannen*, to recover one's courage; *ergänzen*, to complete, to restore.

4. *ver*—(Engl. *for*) is related to the particles *fort*, *away*; *für*, *for*; and *vor*, *before*. It denotes, 1.) *Away*; a gradual ceasing, or consuming; as, *vertreiben*, to drive away; *verschwinden*, to disappear; *verhallen* or *verflingen*, to die away (of sound); *verrauchen*, to evaporate, to reek out; *verfaulen*, to rot; *verbrennen*, to consume by fire (*brennen* means, to be on fire, or to burn); *verarbeiten*, to work up (materials, e. g. leather, &c.). 2.) *Loss, deprivation*: *verspielen*, to lose at, or by, gaming; *die Zeit verschlafen*, *verträumen*, to lose one's time by sleeping, dreaming; *sein Vermögen verbauen*, *verreisen*, to spend one's fortune in building, travelling; *vergessen*, to forget; *verbieten*, to forbid; *verschwören*, to forswear. 3.) *Concealment, or debarring from access*: *verstecken* or *verbergen*, to conceal; *verschließen*, to shut up; *verriegeln*, to bar; *vermauern*, to wall up; *verschweigen*, to conceal (a secret). Of this class are further such verbs as *vergolden*, to gild; *verpichen*, to pitch over, &c. 4.) *Spoiling, or injuring, wrong*: *verziehen*, to spoil in education; *verdrehen*, to distort; *verführen*, to lead astray, to seduce; *verspotten*, to deride; *verwünschen*, to accurse; *verdrucken*, to misprint; *sich versprechen*, *verrechnen*, to make a mistake in speaking, reckoning. 5.) *A change, in space or time, or of the possessor*; as, *verpflanzen*, to transplant; *verschiffen*, to ship (goods to another place); *verschieben*, to postpone; *verlegen*, to transfer (to another place or time); *versparen*, to reserve (for another time); *vermachen*, to bequeath (to make over); *vermieten*, to let. 6.) *Transmutation, or change of condition*; as, *verwandeln*, to metamorphose; *verkohlen*, to burn to coal; *versteinern*, to petrify; *verdorren*, to dry or wither; *verdichten*, to condense. *Ver* has this import also in all verbs derived from adjectives in the comparative degree; as, *vergrößern*, to enlarge; *verschönern*, to embellish; *vermehrten*, to increase. A change of state seems implied also in verbs denoting an intermixing or uniting with other objects; as, *vermischen*, to intermix; *verflechten*, to interlace; *versammeln*, to assemble; *sich verschwören*, to conspire; *vereinigen*, to unite; *verdoppeln*, to double. 7.) *For*; as, *verantworten*, to answer for; *verloohnen*, to reward for; *verfechten*, to fight for, to defend; *verdanken*, to thank for. This prefix

is often used in one and the same verb in several of its significations. Thus, *verschreiben* denotes, *to consume* or *use* (writing materials); *to write wrong* (a word); *to make over*, *to assign*; *to write for* (from another place); *to prescribe* (medicine); *to engage* or *pledge in writing*. The last three significations belong to the 7th import, "for" being implied in each of them*.

Obs. 2. Comparing the fourth signification of *er* with the sixth of *ver*, it will be seen that both often denote a transition into another state: and, indeed, there are some cases in which both particles are used indiscriminately; as, *erlöschen*, or *verlöschen*, *to extinguish*, *to go out*; *erstummen*, or *verstummen*, *to be struck dumb*. Yet, more generally, the change denoted by *ver* has reference to the elementary parts of a subject, that denoted by *er*, to its life and organization; the former is mostly produced gradually by time, the latter by some particular cause. Thus we say, *sie erblaßte*, *she turned pale* (from some emotion); but, *die Farben verblaßen*, *the colours fade*. Hence, too, verbs expressive of death caused by a sudden action, take the prefix *er*; whilst verbs implying a gradual waste, take *ver*; as, *erschlagen*, *to slay*; *ersticken*, *to stab*, *to shoot dead*; *verhungern*, *to die with hunger*; *sich verbluten*, *to bleed to exhaustion*; *verschmachten*, *to linger away*.

5. *ge*—† forms both verbs and nouns from other words. Its general import in verbs, is that of continuance, condensation, or strengthening; as, *gedenken*, *to remember*; *gefrieren*, *to freeze up*, *to congeal*; *gebieten*, *to command*; *gehorchen*, *to obey*,—from *denken*, *to think*; *frieren*, *to freeze*; *bieten*, *to bid*; and *hören*, *to hearken*. In a few cases, the derivative verb hardly differs in import from its primitive; as, *reuen* and *gereuen*, *to repent*; *ziemen* and *geziemen*, *to behave*; *schwellen* and *geschwellen*, *to swell*.

* The same remark applies to the other prefixes, as well as to separable particles (§ 117.) which have more than one signification, and which are frequently used in the same word in several of their respective meanings.

† The form of this prefix, which is used also as an augment of past participles (§ 72.), is in Gothic *ga*, in the oldest German extant *ga* and *ta*, in later writers *ge*, in Anglo-Saxon likewise *ge* (see Grimm's *Deutsche Grammatik*, vol. ii.).—The original form (*ga*), it would seem, has been preserved in a few of the Teutonic words existing in French, viz., in *gaspiller* (Germ. *verspillen*; Engl. *spill*); *galopper* (Low Germ. and Dutch *lopen*—*to run*,—Engl. *to leap*); and perhaps in *gabelle* (Anglo-Saxon *gavel*, and in some parts of Germany *Gasse*), which is not unlikely to be the same word as the German *Gefälle*, *taxes*; and formerly—at least in some provinces—also *inheritance* (see *Gasse* and *Gefälle* in Adelung). In modern English there are a few traces left of this prefix; namely, *enough* (Anglo-Saxon *genoh*, Germ. *genug*); the past participles yet found in Johnson, *yclad*, *ycleped*, *ydrad*, and *ypight*; and very likely also in *handiwork*, (i. e. hand-iwork, A.-S. *hand-geweorc*), *hand-icraft* (A.-S. *gecraft*); and if the above supposition be correct, also in *gavel* and *gavelkind*. Grimm supposes this prefix to be related to the Latin *cum*.

The substantives formed by this prefix are derived from other substantives, as well as from verbs; the former derivatives have a collective import; as, *Gebirg**, *ridge of mountains*; *Gebüsch*, *thicket*; *Geflügel*, *poultry*,—from *Berg*, *mountain*; *Busch*, *bush*; *Flügel*, *wing*. But those derived from verbs have for the most part a frequentative import, often with the accessory idea of annoyance; as, *das Geheul*, *Geschwäß*, *Gemurmel*, *Gemimmer*, *the continual howling, chattering, murmuring, whimpering*,—from the verbs *heulen*, *schwätzen*, &c. These verbal nouns sometimes affix *e*; as, *das Gelaufe und Geschieße*, *the running and sending backwards and forwards*—(*Geschieß*, without the final *e*, denotes *fate*). It must, however, be observed, that a great many of such derivatives denote simple actions, capacities, or even things; as, *Gebet*, *prayer*; *Gesuch*, *request*; *Gefühl*, *feeling*; *Geschenk*, *present, gift*.

Adjectives, too, are formed sometimes by this prefix, either in conjunction with an annex (§ 113.), or without one; as, *gelläufig*, *current, fluent*; *gebäßig*, *odious*,—from *laufen*, *to run*; *hassen*, *to hate*; *geraum* or *geräumig*, *spacious*; *gerecht*, *just*; *geheim*, *secret*,—from *Raum*, *space*; *Recht*, *right*; *heim*, *home*.

6. *zer*—† implies a *dissolution or breaking up into parts*; as, *zerbrechen*, *to break to pieces*; *zerspalten*, *to split asunder*; *zernagen*, *to gnaw into bits*; *zerschmelzen*, *to solve by melting*; *zerspreuen*, *to scatter, to disperse*.

Obs. 3. It will be observed from the preceding explanations of the prefixes, that, generally, *be*, as denoting *imparting*, is opposed to *ent*, denoting *depriving*; *er*, as denoting *acquisition and accomplishing*, is opposed to *ver*, implying *loss and failure*; and *ge*, importing *condensation and collecting*, is opposed to *zer*, implying *decomposition and dispersion*. Thus, *bekleiden*, *to clothe*; *entkleiden*, *to unclothe*;—*erspielen*, *to gain by playing*; *verspielen*, *to lose in play*;—*erkennen*, *to recognise*; *verfennen*, *to mistake*;—*gerinnen*, *to coagulate*; *zerrinnen*, *to melt, to flow asunder*. From *setzen*, *to set*, are formed, *besezen*, *to beset*, *to garrison*; *entsetzen*, *to depose, relieve (a fortress)*; *ersetzen*, *to make amends, to restore*; *versetzen*, *to misplace, to remove*; *zersetzen*, *to decompose, to solve*. Thus, also, *bedecken*, *to cover*; *verdecken*, *to conceal by covering*; *entdecken*, *to discover*‡;—*hewachsen*, *to grow over, to*

* In the derivation the change of the primitive *e* into *i* or *ie* may be considered as analogous to that of *a*, *u*, *ü*, into *ä*, *ö*, *ü*,—i. e. as a mere vowel inflection. Thus also, *Gefieder*, *plumage*; *Gestirn*, *constellation*; *pichen*, *to pitch*; *irdisch*, *earthly*,—from *Feder*, *feather*; *Stern*, *star*; *Pich*, *pitch*; *Erde*, *earth*. The same change takes place in the irregular conjugation. (See § 83.)

† Anglo-Saxon *to*, Gothic *des*, Latin *dis*.

‡ In this instance *ent* implies the counterpart of *ver*, and not that of *be*; as, indeed, it does in many other cases where *ver* denotes concealment; as, *verschleiern*, *to veil*; *entschleiern*, *to unveil*.

overgrow; *entwachsen*, to *outgrow*, (literally, to *grow away from*); *erwachsen*, to *grow up*, to *reach the full size*; *verwachsen*, to *grow deformed*, also to *grow together*. In forming verbs from other parts of speech, the idea to be conveyed by each verb mostly decides the choice of the prefix, if any is used; as, *bejahen*, to *affirm*; *verneinen*, to *deny*; *vernichten*, to *annihilate*; *entfernen*, to *remove*; *erübrigen*, to *save* (money); *zergliedern*, to *dismember*,—from *ja*, *yes*; *nein*, *no*; *nicht*, *not*; *fern*, *far*; *übrig*, *remaining*; *Glieder*, *limbs*.—Of several verbs with prefixes there are no primitives in use; as, *beginnen*, to *begin*; *gewinnen*, to *win*; *verlieren*, to *lose*; there being no such primitives as *ginnen*, *winnen*, &c.

COMPOSITION.

§ 116. Compound numerals and adverbs having been already noticed in their respective places, we have here to treat chiefly of compound nouns and verbs,—that is, of compounds in which a noun or a verb forms the last component part; since it is this which decides to what part of speech a compounded word belongs*.

COMPOUND NOUNS.

Nouns (both substantive and adjective) are compounded with other nouns, with verbs, or with particles.

Examples.

Baumwolle (literally, *tree-wool*), *cotton*; *Seegrün*, *sea-green*; *schwarz*, *coal-black*; *Großvater*, *grandfather*; *tolldünn*, *foolhardy*; *Reitschule*, *riding-school*; *wissbegierig*, *desirous of knowledge*; *Wohlthäter*, *benefactor*; *Nachmittag*, *afternoon*; *unterirdisch*, *subterraneous*.

Either of the components may itself be a compound; as, *Neujahrs-Geschenk*, a *new-year's gift*; *Baumwollen-Spinnmaschinen*, *cotton-spinning-machines*; *General-Kriegs-Zahlmeister* (or as some would write, *Generalkriegszahlmeister*†), *war-paymaster-general*.

* The exceptions are found only in those cases where a whole phrase forms a compound; as, *der Rimmersatt*, the *glutton*; *der Augenichts*, the *good-for-nothing fellow*; *der Garaus*, the *coup de grace*; *heutzutage*, *nowadays*.

† This joining of all the parts of a compound word in German without hyphens is contrary to the rules of Grammarians; and it is this, rather than their great complexity (which in English exists almost to an equal degree),

Obs. 1. The former part of a compound word usually has the form of its grammatical root, as in the examples just adduced; but there are many substantives, of all genders, that in composition take the inflection of the genitive (en or s*), whilst others assume that of the plural (er or en); regarding which we observe as follows:—1.) Nouns of the third declension (§ 47), and most feminine substantives in e, take en or n; as, *Heldenthat*, *heroic action*; *Seidenwurm*, *silkworm*.—Nouns in e, often drop this vowel, if they do not add n; as, *Kirchhof* (from *Kirche*), *churchyard*; *freudvoll*, or *freudenvoll* (from *Freude*), *joyful*. 2.) All derivative nouns ending in g or t (most of which are of the feminine gender—see § 112), all feminines ending in ion or tät, and infinitives, take s in composition; as, *Frühlingsblume*, *spring flower*; *Gesundheitsregel*, *rule of health*; *Religionsfreiheit*, *religious liberty*; *Universitätsfreund*, *a college friend*; *Lebensweise*, *mode of living*; *sterbensfrank*, *mortally ill*. There are but few other feminines that take s; but with regard to masculines and neuters not included in the above rules, usage seems arbitrary, and often unsettled, many taking s in some compounds and not in others, several others never taking it, whilst some are found with and without s in the same compound. Not unfrequently, however, s is inserted to indicate a partitive relation, that is, that the latter component belongs to, or forms a part of, the former. Thus we say, *Schiffsmast*, *ship's mast*, but *Schiffbrücke*, *a bridge of boats*; *ein Landsmann*, *a fellow-countryman*, a man belonging to our own country; but *Landsmann*, means *a countryman*, or *rustic*. 3.) The use of the plural in composition is confined almost entirely to nouns forming their plural in en or er (§ 40); as, *Kinderstube*, *nursery*; *Völkerrecht*, *law of nations* (different from *Volksrecht*, which means *the rights of the people*); *Meilenzeiger*, *milestone*.

Obs. 2. Certain words are from their signification particularly fitted for being annexed to other words, and may be considered almost as annexes. Such are, for instance, substantives denoting *greediness* or *desire* for anything; as, *Gier*, or *Begierde*, *desire*; *Lust*, *longing*; *Sucht*, *passion*, *an ardent desire*. Further, *Art*, *kind* or *manner*;

that causes in long words the uncouth appearance, and difficulty of unravelling the component parts, so often animadverted upon by foreigners.

The hyphen, however, is invariably used where the components denote the constituent parts, as it were, of the object designated; as, *Prinz-Regent*, *prince-regent*; *Englisch-Deutsches Wörterbuch*, *English-German dictionary*. A hyphen is further used when two or more successive compounds have the same word for their last component, which, to avoid repetition, is generally expressed only in the last compound; as, *Morgen- und Abendgebet*, *morning and evening prayer*; *Schreib-Druck- und Löschpapier*, *writing, printing, and blotting paper*.

* Regarding the feminine substantives with these endings, see § 45. *Obs. 1* and *2*.

Runde, knowledge; and the adjectives derived from them, *gierig*, lustig, *süchtig*, artig, and *kundig*; as, *Geldgier* or *Gelbbegierde*, love of money; *Neugier*, curiosity; *Kauflust*, desire of buying; *Esflust*, appetite; *Streitsucht*, contentiousness; *Ehrsucht* or *Ehrbegierde*, ambition; *Lebensart*, manner of living; good-breeding; *Holzart*, kind of wood; *Sternkunde*, astronomy; and so the adjectives *neugierig*, curious; *kauf Lustig**, desirous of buying; *holzartig**, ligneous, &c. Among the many adjectives of this class we may further notice, 1.) *reich* and *voll*, denoting plentiful, and *leer* and *los*, denoting the contrary; as, *volkreich*, populous (literally, rich in people); *sinnreich*, ingenious; *gedankenvoll*, thoughtful; *ruhm-voll*, glorious; *luftleer*, void of air; *gedankenlos*, thoughtless; *sinnlos*, senseless. 2.) *mäßig* and *recht*, or *gerecht*, denoting according or agreeably to; as, *gesetzmäßig*, according to law, lawful; *heldenmäßig*, heroic; *wasserrecht*, horizontal; *senkrecht*, perpendicular; *regelrecht*, according to rule; *schulgerecht*, strict, according to form, or the schools. 3.) *haltig* (found only in composition), containing; and *fertig*, ready for; as, *silberhaltig*, containing silver; *segelfertig*, ready to sail. 4.) *würdig* and *werth*, worthy; which are annexed chiefly to the infinitives, sometimes to the roots of verbs, which assume then a passive sense; as, *liebenswürdig*, worthy of love, amiable; *sehenswerth* or *sehenswürdig*, worth seeing; *merkwürdig*, remarkable.

The prefix *un-*, we may lastly observe, has generally a negative power, like the English *un-*; as, *unwahr*, untrue; *unweise*, unwise. It may be prefixed to almost all past participles and derivative adjectives: *ungesehen*, unseen; *unschuldig*, innocent; *unmöglich*, impossible, &c. With substantives it often denotes bad or ill; as, *Unthat*, a bad deed; *Unthier*, a monster; *Unkraut*, weeds; *Unwille*, indignation. It frequently occurs with words which as simples are either not in use, or have a different meaning; as, *ungestüm*, boisterous; *unaufhörlich*, incessant; *unwillkürlich*, involuntary,—there being no such words in use as *gestüm*, or *aufhörlich*; and *willkürlich*, denotes arbitrary.

COMPOUND VERBS.

§ 117. We have already mentioned (§ 89.) that verbs are compounded only with particles†; we shall now ex-

* As a separate adjective, *lustig* denotes merry; and *artig*, polite, or pretty; which significations they never have when forming the latter parts of compounds of the above description.

† This inseparable particle is never prefixed to verbs; and such verbs as *beunruhigen*, to make uneasy; *verunglücken*, to fail, &c., are derivatives from *saruhig*, uneasy; *Unglück*, misfortune.

‡ Regarding verbal nouns see § 93. Obs. 3.

plain the modifications which the latter impart to the simple verbs with which they are compounded:—

1. *Ab* denotes 1.) *Off, or from, implying separation, departing, or removal*; as, *abschneiden, to cut off*; *abgehen, to go off, depart*; *abwenden, to turn off, avert*; *abtaufen, to buy from*; *abschmeicheln, to coax out of (a person)*; *absteigen, to alight*. 2.) *A gradual fall, decrease, or consuming, and figuratively, wearying*; as, *abdachen, to shelve off*; *abdonnern, to roll off, to subside (of thunder)*; *abnußen, to wear by use*; *abnehmen, to decrease*; *abängstigen, to weary, to distress*. 3.) *Conclusion, end*; also *end* in the sense of *purpose*: *abrechnen, to balance accounts*; *abreden, to agree upon*; *absehen, to see the end, also to purpose (whence abgesehen, designed; and Absicht, purpose)*; *abzielen, to tend to*.—In verbs denoting customary actions—such as belong to daily life, or as form part of a usual business or process—*ab* implies, *going through* the usual routine of that action, or the performance of a task, as it were; as, *abspelsen, to finish one's dinner*; *abschlachten, to kill (as preparatory for cooking)*; *abstrafen, to punish (generally for minor transgressions of frequent occurrence)*; *abbören, to take evidence (of witnesses)*. 4.) *Taking off (as a copy)*: *abschreiben, to copy*; *abbilden, to portray, to make a copy, (whence, Abbild, image)*; *sich abspiegeln, to be reflected (as in a mirror)*. 5.) *Repeal, negation*: *abschaffen, to abolish*; *abschwören, to abjure*; *abrathen, to dissuade*; *abschlagen, to refuse*.—Thus, also, *abgeneigt, averse*; *abgeschmackt, insipid, absurd*; *Abgrund, abyss*.

2. *An* denotes 1.) *A direction to, or touching of, an object or its surface (like the preposition an*, § 105.), and is often rendered by at, to, on, or over*; as, *ansetzen, to look at*; *anrücken, to approach*; *anreden, to speak to, to address*; *anfühlen, to touch, to feel*; *angränzen, to border upon*; *anfallen, to fall upon, to attack*; *anheften, to set on*; *anfärben, to paint over*. 2.) *Fastening, permanent junction*: *anbinden, to tie on*; *annageln, to nail on*; *sich ansiedeln, to settle (at a place)*; *anschaffen, to procure (for a permanency; verschaffen, to provide with, implies no such accessory idea)*; *anhängen, to adhere, to hang on*. 3.) *Beginning, and hence, figuratively, slightness in degree*; as, *angehen, anfangen, or anheben, to begin*; *anschneiden, to cut (anything that is whole)*; *anbrennen, to set light to, to kindle*; *anrosten, to begin to rust, or to be a little rusty*; *anfeuchten, to moisten a little on the outside*. Thus, also, in the nouns *Anhöhe, a moderate elevation, or rise*; *Anflug, coppice*; also *a smattering*.—This import of *an* seems to be a figurative use of its primary import of *exterior, or outside* (see § 105.

* With the distinction, however, pointed out in § 107. *Obss.* 1. & 2.; as all separable particles are adverbs.

Obs. 1.) By a similar figure it implies, in a few instances, *outward appearance, semblance*; as, *sich anstellen, to feign*; *angeben, to pretend*,—whence, *angeblich, pretended*. 4.) *A formal address, or notice*—implying that the action is of consequence to one or the other of the parties; as, *anzeigen, to announce*; *ansagen, to notify*; *ansuchen, to petition*; *angeloben, to vow solemnly*; *anerkennen, to recognise* (publicly or formally—*erkennen* denotes *to get an insight, to come to a conviction*, without any reference as to acknowledgment of it).

3. *Auf* denotes 1.) Most relations of the preposition *auf* (§ 105.): *aufflegen, to lay on, to impose*; *auffladen, to load upon*; *aufmerken, to pay attention to*; *aufzählen, to enumerate* (one after another, as it were); *aufbewahren, to preserve* (for future use—see § 106.); *aufschieben, to postpone*. 2.) *Up, upwards*; and figuratively, *transition into a more animated state, or restoration to its former one*: *aufstehen, to stand up, to rise*; *aufsteigen, to ascend*; *aufrühren, to stir up*; *aufmuntern, to encourage*; *aufbringen, to irritate*; *aufleben, to revive*; *aufwachen, to awake*; *auffärben, to dye afresh*. 3.) *To bring to light, or to display*, by means of the action denoted by the simple verb; as, *aufdecken, to uncover*; *auffuchen, to search for*; *auffinden, to discover*; *aufweisen, to show forth, to produce*. Hence it denotes also 4.) *Open*: *aufschneiden, to cut open*; *aufbrechen, to break open*; *aufplätzen, to burst open*. 5.) *Up, in the sense of consumption or entire use*: *aufessen, to eat up*; *aufarbeiten, to work up*; *aufreissen, to destroy*. A kindred import is found in such verbs as *aufgeben, to give up*; *aufheben, to abolish*; *aussagen, to give warning to quit, &c.*

4. *Aus* denotes 1.) The relations of the preposition *aus*; as, *ausreiben, to drive out, to expel*; *ausleeren, to empty*; *auswählen, to select, to pick out*; *auszeichnen, to distinguish*; *ausschließen, to exclude*. 2.) *Extent*: *ausstrecken, to distend, to draw out*; *ausbreiten, to spread*; *ausstreuen, to strew, to spread*; *ausplaudern, to divulge*; *austheilen, to distribute*. 3.) *Thoroughly, or through all parts*: *das Haus aussuchen, to search over the (whole) house*; *aussfüllen, to fill up*; *ausstopfen, to stuff, to cram*; *auszieren, to adorn, to fit out with ornaments*; *ausbessern, to repair* (all the damaged parts); *aussfragen, to cross-examine*; *to question closely*. The same idea would seem to prevail in such verbs as *auslachen, to laugh at* (a person); *auszanken, to scold well*; *auszischen, to hiss at*; *aussprügeln, to give a good cudgelling, &c.* 4.) *On to the end*, finish*: *ausbören, to hear out*; *ausbauern, to persevere*; *auslesen, to read to the end*; *ausschreiben, to write to the end*, (e.g. a letter); also, in the second import, *to circulate by writing*; *aufreichen, to suffice, to go to the full end*; *auskommen, to get through, to be sufficient* (whence the noun *Auskommen, competency*); *ausschlafen,*

* Compare note (*), p. 285.

to sleep enough.—In some verbs, as in *auslöschen*, *to extinguish*; *ausbrennen*, *to burn out*; *aussterben*, *to become extinct*, &c., the particle implies *ceasing*, or *extinction*.—The compound tenses of past time of most verbs in which *aus* denotes *end*, are often used figuratively, in the sense of *over*, or *gone by*; as, *Er hat ausgelitten*, *his sufferings are over, at an end*; *Sie hat ausgetanzt*, or *ausgesungen*, *she has done dancing, or singing; she will dance, or sing, no more*.

5. *Bei*, which is compounded with but a small number of verbs, denotes *to*, or *at*, implying 1.) *Adjunction*, or *attribution*; as, *beifügen*, *to add, annex*; *beibinden*, *to bind to* (another thing, additionally); *beimeßen*, *to attribute, to impute*. 2.) *Assent*, or *support*; as, *beistimmen*, *to agree with, or to accede to* (another's opinion); *beitreten*, *to join* (a party, or league); *beitragen*, *to contribute*; *beistehen*, *to stand by, assist*; *beimohnen*, *to be present* (for the sake of countenancing).

6. *Ein** denotes 1.) *In, up*; as, *eingießen*, *to pour in*; *einschreiben*, *to inscribe*; *einschließen*, *to shut up*; also, *to include*; *einwickeln*, *to envelope, to wrap up*; *einathmen*, *to inhale*. Sometimes it refers to the home, or to the possession of a person; as, *einkaufen*, *to buy in*; *einlösen*, *to redeem*. 2.) *Contraction, loss*: *einschrumpfen*, *to shrink, shrivel*; *einfochen*, *to diminish by cooking, to boil down*; *eintrocknen*, *to dry up*. 3.) *Transition into another, generally a less animated, state or condition*: *einschlafen*, *to fall asleep*; *einschüchtern*, *to intimidate*; *einfrieren*, *to freeze up*; *einschmelzen*, *to melt down*; *einweichen*, *to soak*; *einsalzen*, *to put into salt*; *einräuchern*, *to fumigate*; *einmachen*, *to preserve*. With which may be classed such verbs as *einseifen*, *to lather*; *einsprigen*, *to splash*; *einschmußen*, *to dirty*; *einpudern*, *to powder*, &c.—In some verbs *ein* implies *demolition*: *einreißen*, *to pull down* (see *Obs.* 2.); and in a few others, *interruption*; as, *einhalten*, *to stop, to hold in*; *einstellen*, *to put a stop to*; *einwenden*, *to object*, &c.

7. *Mit* denotes *participation, or association*; as, *mitspielen*, *to join in the game*; *mitmachen*, *to do as others do*; *mittheilen*, *to communicate*; *mitführen*, *to carry with one*; *mitrechnen*, *to include in an account*.

8. *Nach* denotes *after* in all its significations; and implies, therefore, 1.) *Following the course, direction, or example, of another*: *nachlaufen*, *to run after*; *nachtragen*, *to carry after*; *nachkommen*, *to follow*; also, *to act according to* (example or order); *nachsingen*, *to sing after* (one). 2.) *Search, inquiry*: *nachforschen*, *to search after*; *nachfragen*, *to inquire after*; *nachdenken*, *to reflect*; *nachsehen*, *to look after*; *nachrechnen*, *to reckon after, to examine an account*. In a few verbs *nach*

* This is the same particle as the preposition *in*, being but a different form of the latter, and is used chiefly as an adverb, and therefore also in composition. In some compound nouns however the form *in* is used; as, *Inschrift*, *inscription*; *Inhalt*, *contents*, &c.

implies *yielding*, and in a few others it denotes *behind*: *nachlassen*, to leave off; also, to leave behind; *nachgeben*, to yield; *etw. nach-reben*, to say anything behind a person's back.

9. *Vor* denotes 1.) *Before*, both in time and space: *vorlegen*, to lay before; *vorschießen*, to advance (money); *vorfahren*, to drive before (the house), to drive up; *vorhängen*, to hang before (anything),—whence *Vorhang*, curtain; *vorbedeuten*, to forebode, to presage; *vorüben*, to practise beforehand, previously. In several instances some figurative acceptation of *before*, such as *leading*, *anticipation*, or *prevention*, is implied; as, *vortanzen*, to lead the dance; *vorarbeiten*, to work in preparation; *sich vorsehen*, to be on one's guard; *vorbeugen*, to obviate, to prevent. When referring to a person it often implies, *for imitation*, *amusement*, or *for some other purpose*: *vorschreiben*, to set a writing copy (to a person); also, to direct, or order; *vorspielen*, to play before (one, either to amuse, or to make him play after); *vorlesen*, to read to, to lecture. 2.) *Forward* or *forth* (like *hervor*): *vorragen*, to project; *vor-rücken*, to move forward, to advance; *vordringen*, to press forward. In a few verbs it implies *false pretence*; *vorgeben*, to pretend, to make believe; *vorwenden*, to allege, &c.

10. *Zu* denotes 1.) *To, towards*; as, *zuführen*, to lead to; *zureilen*, to hasten to, or towards; *zuertennen*, to adjudge; *zuschreiben*, to ascribe; *zustellen*, to deliver. In a few instances it implies *yielding*; as, *zugeben*, to admit; *zugestehen*, to concede; *zulassen*, to allow. 2.) *Fitting, adjustment, answering some end or expectation*: *zurichten*, to prepare, or dress; *zuschneiden*, to cut ready; *zureiten*, to break in (a horse); *zureichen*, to be sufficient (for the purpose); *zutreffen*, to agree; to happen (as predicted). 3.) *Addition, increase*: *zufüllen*, to fill up, to pour to; *zulügen*, to add, or augment (whence *die Zulage*, the increase, e.g. of a salary); *zugesehen*, to associate. (The three preceding significations answer respectively to the first, sixth, and fourth of the preposition *zu*; see p. 250.) 4.) *On* implying *continuation*, or *haste*: *zulesen*, to read on; *zuhören*, to listen to, to attend; *zufahren*, to drive on. 5.) *To* or *up* implying *closing*; *zumachen*, to shut to; *zustopfen*, to stop up; *zusiegeln*, to seal up; *zuriegeln*, to bolt; *zunähen*, to sew up.

[The particles *durch*, *über*, *unter*, and *um* have been explained § 90.—See also the first remark in the following *Obs.* 2.]

All the preceding particles are used also as prepositions, except *ab*, which is an adverb corresponding to the preposition *von*—the latter being never used as the first part of a compound.—The other separable particles, which are never employed as prepositions, require little explanation, as they seldom vary in composition the import which they have as separate words; and the following cursory remarks may therefore suffice: 1.) *Fort* denotes *on*; also *away*: *fortfahren*, to drive on, or

away; also to continue; fortlesen, to read on; fortfliegen, to fly away. 2.) The import of *her* and *hin* has been explained § 96. Thus, *hersehen*, to look here, this way; *hinsehen*, to look there, that way; *herstammen*, to come from, to descend; *hinsterben*, to die away. In a few instances *her* implies *by rote* or *customarily*; as, *herbeten*, to repeat by rote; *herfagen*, to recite. 3.) *Los* denotes *loose, off, or getting free* from any ties or restraint: *loßbrechen*, to break loose; *loßbrennen*, to fire off; *loßknüpfen*, to untie. 4.) The particles *nieder*, down, downwards; *weg*, away; and *wieder*, again, or back, retain exactly the same import in composition; as, *niedersteigen*, to descend; *niederknien*, to kneel down; *wegwerfen*, to throw away; *wegstecken*, to put away, or aside; *wiederkommen*, to come again, or back; *wiedergeben*, to return, give back.—The verbs compounded with *dar* and *ob*, and with the inseparable particles *hinter*, *voll*, and *wider*, being but few, may easily be learned from the Dictionary. Regarding *miß*, see § 74. Obs. 2.

Obs. 1. In composition with nouns the above particles have the same significations as here explained; as, *Abzeichen*, badge, mark of distinction; *Außland*, foreign parts; *Vorzimmer*, antechamber, &c. The greater number, however, of such compound nouns are derived from compound verbs; as, *Anfang*, beginning, from *anfangen*, to begin; *Aufwärter*, waiter, from *aufwarten*, to wait upon; *Anhang*, appendix; *ein Anhänger*, a hanger on; *anhänglich*, attached, from *anhangen*, to hang on. Their full import cannot, however, always be ascertained from the primitive verb.—Compare § 112. Obs. 2.

Obs. 2. We add the following remarks:—1.) The particles *nieder*, *unter*, *hin*, *ein*, and *um*, are all used in the sense of *down*. The first implies simply from a higher to a lower situation; as, *niedersteigen*, to descend, to go down. *Unter* implies down below the horizon, or the surface; as, *untergehen*, to go down (as the sun), or to sink (as a ship). The proper sense of *hin* has been explained § 97.; the sense of *down* must be inferred either from the simple verb or from the context; we may say *hinfallen*, to fall down; but not *hinsteigen* for *niedersteigen*. *Ein* in that import implies destruction of the previous form or structure, a crushing down; as, *Die Mauer fiel ein*, the wall fell down, *Um*, in agreement with its primary import of *round* or *circular*, implies a change from an erect position into a horizontal one, so that a section of a circle is described by the motion. Thus, *umfallen*, to fall down, can be said only of persons, trees, or things standing*. 2.) Both *bei* and *mit* denote association; the former implies the relation of a second to

* The adverbs *herab* and *hinab*, which likewise denote *down*, always refer, like all particles compounded with *her*, or *hin*, to a specified place.—See § 96. Obs. 2.

a principal, the latter that of fellowship, especially when compounded with substantives: *Beisitzer*, *assessor*; *Beiname*, *nickname*; also *surname*; *Mitsbürger*, *fellow-citizen*; *die Mitschuldigen*, *the accomplices*.

3.) The difference of import in some compounds with *an* and *auf* originates merely in the difference of degree implied by the respective particles; that implied by *auf* being stronger. Thus, *anregen*, denotes *to incite, to excite our attention, to start* (a subject or question),—*aufregen*, *to excite, to stir up*; *antragen*, *to offer*,—*auftragen*, *to commission*; *sich anlehnen*, *to lean against*,—*sich auflehnen*, *to oppose, to revolt*; *das Ansehen*, *the consideration, respect*,—*das Aufsehen*, *the sensation, surprise*. 4.) *An* and *zu* in many cases differ, by *an* referring immediately to the object, whilst *zu* refers to the possession, interest, or concern in it; in other words, it implies the relation of the dative case (see p. 54). Thus, *angreifen*, *to touch, handle, also to attack*,—*zugreifen*, *to lay hold of*; *anfallen*, *to fall upon, to attack*,—*zufallen*, *to fall to one's share*; *anstehen*, *to fit, or suit*,—*zustehen*, *to be becoming, also incumbent upon*; *die Angehörigen*, *the relations*,—*das Zugehörige*, *the appurtenance*.

Obs. 9. The learner will have perceived from the above explanations, that various particles are opposed to each other, either in some particular significations, or in their general import. Thus, *ab* is opposed to *an*, *auf*, and *zu*; *auf* also to *zu*, and to all the particles denoting *down*; and *an* to *auf*. The latter is, however, more generally opposed to *ein* (like *out* and *in* in English). *Vor* is opposed to *nach*. Of these oppositions we add the following examples:—*abreisen*, *to depart*; *ankommen*, *to arrive*; *abbinden* (or *loosbinden*), *to untie*; *anbinden*, *to tie to* (e.g. to a tree); *abwesend*, *absent*; *anwesend*, *present*;—*abladen*, *to unload* (an animal or wagon); *aufladen*, *to load* (upon); *abfäßen*, *to dismount*; *auffäßen*, *to mount*; *auf* and *abschlagen*, *to rise and fall* (in price);—*abnehmen*, *to decrease*; *zunehmen*, *to increase*; *absagen*, *to put off*; *zusagen*, *to promise*; *ab* and *zugehen*, *to go to and fro*;—*aufschließen*, *to unlock*; *zuschließen*, *to lock*;—*austauchen*, *to emerge*; *untertauchen**, *to plunge down*;—*aufbauen*, *to build up*; *einreißen*, or *niederreißen*, *to pull down*;—*aufstellen*, *to put up*; *umwerfen*, *to throw down*;—*anzünden*, *to light* (set on fire); *ausslöschten*, *to extinguish*;—*ausführen*, *to export*; *importieren*, *to import*; *auf* and *eingehen*, *to go in and out*;—*vorgehen†*, *to go before, to precede*; *nachstehen*, *to follow*,

* When compounded with nouns, *unter* is mostly opposed by *ober*, *upper*, *high*; as, *Oberlippe*, *upper-lip*; *Unterslippe*, *under-lip*. In geographical names we mostly say *nieder* for *unter*: *Obersachsen*, *Upper Saxony*; *Niedersachsen*, *Lower Saxony*.

† In composition with substantives, *vor* is sometimes opposed to *hinter*, *hind* or *back*: *Vorgrund*, *foreground*; *Hintergrund*, *background*; but more generally its form is then *vorder*; as, *Vorderfuß*, *forefoot*; *Vorderrad*, *forewheel*.

to be inferior; *vorsagen*, to dictate; *nach sagen*, to say or repeat after (one); *vorzählen*, to count (to a person to show one is right); *nachzählen*, to count (after a person to see that he is right).—The diversity of import caused by composition with these particles, may perhaps be better seen from the following examples, in which the English has been more faithful to its Saxon origin: *abbrechen*, to break off; *anbrechen*, active, to break (the first piece off); neuter, to dawn; *aufbrechen*, to break up; also, to break open; *ausbrechen*, to break out; *durchbrechen*, to break through; *einbrechen*, to break in; *lösbrechen*, to break loose; *niederbrechen*, to break down; *unterbrechen*, to interrupt.

It might be useful, and perhaps interesting to the curious learner, to collect from a dictionary all the words formed by means of the above particles and annexes from any single primary verb much in use,—such as, *sehen*, *stehen*, *finden*, *schlagen*, &c. Thus he would find from the verb *tragen*, to carry, or bear, only the derivatives, *Träger*, bearer, *Trage*, hand-barrow, and *tragbar*, bearable; but twenty verbs are derived from it by means of the above prefixes and particles (as, *betragen*, *ertragen*, *antragen*, &c.), and from these again twelve substantives without annexes (as, *Betrag*, *Antrag*, &c.), and about sixteen other derivatives (substantives and adjectives), formed by means of annexes. From the verb *gehen* are derived in the same manner, twenty-six verbs, sixteen substantives without annexes (as, *Abgang*, *Aufgang*, &c.), and about eighteen derivatives with annexes; altogether, therefore, about sixty derivatives.

The preceding outlines may suffice to convey a general idea of the import of the syllables and words which are most in use in derivation and composition,—a knowledge almost indispensable in German, where an author frequently forms new words, intelligible only from analogy.

* * * Some observations on the accidents of German Grammar, intended to be inserted in this place, and to which reference has been made elsewhere (p. 71), are omitted, on finding that they could not be fully proved without far exceeding the limits of this work.

PART III.

SYNTAX.

§ 118. Syntax treats of the connecting of words in a sentence according to the established usage of a language. In this part of the Grammar, therefore, we shall treat,

I. Of the use of the accidents of *declension*,—or, more accurately speaking, of the use of the article, of the agreement of declinable words (i.e. of nouns, definitives, and pronouns), and of the government of cases.

II. Of the use of the accidents of *conjugation*,—that is, of the agreement of the verb with its subject, and of the use of the tenses and moods.

III. Of the arrangement or order of words in a sentence.

USE OF THE ARTICLE.

§ 119. The article, whether definite or indefinite, in German, is generally used, or omitted, in the same cases as in English; as, *der Sohn des Nachbars*, or *des Nachbars Sohn*, *the son of the neighbour*, or *the neighbour's son**; *eines Freundes Rath**, *a friend's advice*; *In einer Stunde brachte er Dinte, Papier, und Federn*, *in an hour he brought ink, paper, and pens*; *Er ist ein Engländer*, *he is an Englishman*; *Wir sind Engländer*, *we are Englishmen*. (See also the examples p. 59.) We shall therefore notice only the cases in which the two languages differ; of which the following may be regarded as the principal:—

* It will be seen from these examples that in German, as in English, the substantive preceded by the genitive which it governs does not admit the article, being sufficiently determined by the preceding genitive.

The definite article is used in German, contrary to the English idiom,

1. Before nouns denoting an abstract idea—including, of course, names of sciences; as, *Die Hoffnung, daß bestes Geschenk des Himmels, hope, the best gift of heaven; Das lehrt uns die Philosophie, philosophy teaches us that.* Thus, also, *die Tugend, virtue; die Natur, nature; die Ewigkeit, eternity; die Mathematik, mathematics; das Leben, life, &c.*

2. Before nouns of concrete objects which preclude the idea of number, being conceived only in substance, mass, or congeries; as, *Bacchus, der Gott des Weines, Bacchus, the god of wine; Wer hat das Schießpulver erfunden? who invented gunpowder?* (See the next Obs.)

Obs. 1. In German, as in English, a noun in the singular number commonly denoting an individual, may be used also to denote the species or the whole class, and is then joined not only with the definite article, as is mostly the case*, but often also with the indefinite article; as, *Die, or eine, Rose ist eine schöne Blume, the, or a, rose is a fine flower; Der, or ein, Fisch kann nur im Wasser leben, the, or a, fish can live only in water.* However, this indiscriminate use seems to be allowable only in attributing, as in the above examples, such qualities or capacities to a whole class as are equally perceptible in each individual; but in attributes applicable to the whole species only, the definite article alone is used; as, *Wo stammt das Pferd her? whence does the horse originally come? Der Löwe ist der König der Thiere, the lion is the king of beasts.* By the definite article, it would therefore seem, the noun in such cases receives a figurative import, denoting the representative of the species; whilst the indefinite article simply denotes any. The same remarks apply to the nouns of the two preceding rules, namely, when the attribute refers to the whole extent of the object in view—which is the case also when a personification is implied—the noun must be joined with the definite article: *Prometheus stahl das Feuer vom Himmel, Prometheus stole (the) fire from heaven* (i.e. the fire we still possess—without the article it would mean *some* fire); *Die Vernunft wurde dem Menschen gegeben, damiter, &c., reason was*

* The noun *Mensch, man*, forms no exception, though in English *man* does not admit of any article when referring to the species; as, *Der Mensch ist sterblich, man is mortal.*

given to man in order that he, &c. Here the article shows that all reason known to us is meant, and excludes, therefore, all other earthly creatures from this gift. Thus also in personifications: *Kuft nicht die Weisheit, und die Klugheit läßt sich hören? doth not Wisdom cry and Understanding put forth her voice?* See also the examples of the first rule. But when the attribute would equally be applicable, whether we view the subject in its totality only, or without any particular reference to its extent, the noun may be used with the definite article, or without any—these nouns, from the nature of their import, not admitting the indefinite article. Thus we may say, *Feuer*, or *das Feuer*, *ist zerstörend*, *fire is destructive*; *Wein*, or *der Wein*, *ist gesund*, *wine is wholesome*; *Ich liebe Wahrheit*, or *die Wahrheit*, *I love truth*.—On the other hand, the two languages agree in all cases where these nouns cannot have any reference to totality; as, *Ich hatte Freude*, *I had joy*; *die Freude Sie zu sehen*, *the joy of seeing you*; *Er hat Geld und Verstand*, *he has money and understanding*; *Er hat das Geld, aber nicht den Verstand dazu*; *he has the money, but not the understanding for it*.—See also § 66. Obs. 4.

3. Before the names of the months and days of the week; as, *Der Januar war kalt*, *January was cold*; *Ich komme den Montag*, *I come on Monday*. Regarding other proper names, see § 49.

4. Before many nouns denoting an object which is the only one of its kind; as, *die heilige Schrift*, *Holy Writ*; *das Paradies*, *Paradise*; *die Nachwelt*, *posterity*; *der Himmel*, *heaven*; *die Vorsehung*, *Providence**.—*Gott*, *God*, does not admit the definite article, except when preceded by an adjective, or otherwise determined: *der Allmächtige Gott*, *God Almighty*; *der Gott der Liebe*, *the God of love*.

5. Instead of the possessive pronoun, if the proprietor cannot be mistaken; as, *Er nahm den (for seinen) Hut ab*, *he took his hat off*; *Das Leben ist ihm theuer*, *(his) life is dear to him*. But we must say, *Er suchte seinen Hut*, (not *den Hut*, because we could not know whose,) *he was looking*

* In English the article is also often omitted when conventionally only one particular object is meant; but such omission is likewise not allowable in German; as, *Parliament*, *das Parliament*; *Government*, *die Regierung*; *in town*, *in der Stadt*; *on Change*, *auf der Börse*, &c.

for his hat ; Ihr (not daß) Leben ist ihm theuer, *her life is dear to him.*

6. To mark the case, especially the genitive, if it could not otherwise be distinguished ; as, die Würde der Frauen, *the dignity of women* ; Er zieht Wein dem Wasser vor, *he prefers wine to water.*

The indefinite article, on the other hand, is often omitted in German, though not in English, before nouns importing social relations, when used as qualifying the preceding subject ; as, Ich bin Vater, *I am a father* ; Er ist Soldat, *he is a soldier* ; Er ist berühmt als Künstler, *he is celebrated as an artist.*

Obs. 2. We add the following remarks :—1.) The article is often omitted before two, or more, successive nouns denoting things that, from their standing in some connection to each other, are generally joined in our thoughts, and which, if used singly, would require the article ; as, Er nahm Hut und Stock, *he took (his) hat and (his) stick.* Very frequently the English and German agree in this respect : Straßen und Plätze füllten sich, *streets and squares were filling* ; Bring uns Dinte und Feder, *bring us pen and ink.* In animated discourse, too, the article is generally omitted in both languages ; as, Alles ist verloren, Gut, Ehre und Leben, *all is lost, property, honour, and life.* 2.) In prepositional phrases, or when forming a component part of a verb (§ 89. *Obs. 2.*), the noun is in many instances used without an article, as in English, whilst in others it is joined with an article in German, though not in English,—which usage, like the whole phrase, being idiomatic, can be learned only from practice. Thus we say, bei Hofe, *at court* ; bei Tage, *by day* ; zu Pferde, *on horseback* ; zu Wasser, *by water* ; auf Zinsen, *at interest* ; zu Bette gehen, *to go to bed* ; Gevatter stehen, *to stand godfather* ;—and yet we must say, bei der Hand, *at hand* ; zur See, *at sea* ; zur Zeit der Noth, *in time of need* ; die Spitze hieten, *to make head* ; die Flucht ergreifen, *to take to flight* ; zur Rede stellen, *to call to account* ; ein Herz fassen, *to take heart.* In some instances the use of the article is optional ; as, zu rechter, or zur rechten, Zeit, *in right time* ; in besser, or in der besten, Ordnung, *in the best order.* 3.) Infinitives answering to the English verbal nouns in *ing* are in German mostly joined with the definite article.—See § 91. Lastly, we may observe, that when the English *a* is equivalent to *each*, it is mostly rendered in German by the definite article ; as, *fifty pounds a year*, fünfzig Pfund das Jahr ; *a shilling a pound*, einen Schilling das Pfund.—See also § 56. *Obs. 4.*

Obs. 3. The definite article is often contracted with the preposition

preceding it.—See § 30. *Obs.* 3. The indefinite article hardly ever admits of such contraction, except with *zu*, and only in particular expressions; as, *zur* (for *zu einer*) *Warnung dienen*, *to serve as a warning*; *zum* (for *zu einem*) *Narren halten*, *to make a fool of a person*. The contraction weakens the determinative power of the article, and is therefore not always optional. Thus, for instance, it rarely takes place when the noun is followed by a relative clause; as, *Er wohnt in dem* (not *im*) *Hause, das Sie einst bewohnten*, *he lives in the house that you once inhabited*. On the other hand, the contraction is preferable before nouns denoting time, or other abstract ideas, especially when the preposition with its regimen has a kind of adverbial import; as, *am Sonntag*, *on Sunday*; *im Winter*, *in winter*; *über's Jahr*, *this day twelve months*; *im Kriege*, *in war*; also *at war*; *im* (not *in dem*) *Ernst*, *in earnest, seriously*; *am Ende*, *at last*; *after all* (an *dem Ende* would mean, *at the end of a particular object*); *zum* (not *zu dem*) *Glück*, *fortunately*.

CONCORD.

§ 120. Regarding the agreement of nouns and the words depending on them, the following rules must be observed:—

1. The article, the adjective, and the adjective pronoun, must agree in gender, case, and number, with the substantive (expressed or understood) to which they belong. Examples have been given elsewhere (pages 57 and 59, and § 51. *Obs.* 7.). In the following examples the substantive belonging to the adjective is understood: *Dieser Knabe ist mein Bruder, den andern kenne ich nicht*, *this boy is my brother, the other (boy) I do not know*; *Der Uebel größtes ist die Schuld*, *the greatest (evil) of evils is guilt*; *Die Donau ist der größte unter den Strömen Deutschlands*, *the Danube is the greatest (river) of the rivers in Germany*. See also § 52. and the end of § 29.

Obs. 1. When the same definitives, or adjectives, define or qualify two, or more, successive nouns, they are in English often omitted before all the nouns but the first; but this can be done in German only when all the nouns are of the same number, and, if in the singular, they must be of the same gender too; otherwise the definitive and adjective must be repeated before each substantive. Thus we may say, *Alle die schönen Rosen, Nelken, und Veilchen sind verwelkt*, *all the fine roses, pinks, and violets are faded*; *Ich kenne seinen Bruder, Oheim, und Neffen*, *I know his brother, uncle, and nephew*. But we must say, *Ich kenne seine Schwester* (*sister*), *seinen Oheim*, und *seinen Neffen*, the

first noun being of a different gender from the two others. Thus also *der Rock und die Weste*, *the coat and waistcoat*; *sein Oheim und seine Neffen*, *his uncle and nephews*.

2. The pronoun referring to an antecedent, must agree with it in gender and number, but its case depends on some word of its own clause*; as, *Die Kinder, denen (or welchen) Sie Almosen gaben, sind unten, ihre Mutter (or die Mutter derselben) ist mit ihnen gekommen*, *the children to whom you gave alms, are below, their mother is come with them*; *Wo ist der Hut, den er brachte?* *where is the hat which he brought?* *Das Volk und seine (not ihre, Volk being grammatically in the singular number—compare § 127. Rule 5.) Anführer*, *the people and their leaders*. See also § 63.

Obs. 2. With regard to the preceding rule, we must, however, remark, 1.) When the antecedent is of neuter gender, and yet denominates a woman (see § 32.), the pronoun referring to it, generally, resumes the natural gender of the noun; as, *Ich kenne das Weib; der Mann, mit dem sie spricht, ist ihr Bruder*, *I know the woman; the man with whom she speaks is her brother*. Thus also in Schiller's poem, *das Mädchen aus der Fremde*, all the pronouns referring to *Mädchen*, *maiden*, are of the feminine gender. 2.) In reference to a sentence, or a clause, the pronoun is always in the neuter gender; as, *Er will seinen einzigen Sohn enterben; welches (or was) ihm wenig Ehre macht*, *he wishes to disinherit his only son; which does him little credit*; *welcher (who) would refer to Sohn*. 3.) The neuter pronoun is sometimes used in reference to two or more nouns of different genders; sometimes, also, in reference to persons of both sexes, or whose sex is not regarded (though more frequently the masculine gender is used in the latter case): *Welches ist besser, ein rühmlicher Tod oder ein ehrloses Leben?* *which is better, a glorious death, or an ignominious life?* *Er versprach bald zu schreiben, auch seine Nichte versprach es; und doch hat keines geschrieben*, *he promised to write soon; his niece, too, promised it; and yet neither (of them) did it*; *Ein jedes (for ein jeder) hatte was anderes zu sagen*, *every one had something or other to say* (Goethe). 4.) In a somewhat similar manner the

* This rule will easily be understood if we consider that, as a noun may vary in the next proposition the relation or case in which it was in the preceding, though not its gender and number, the same must obtain with its substitute, the pronoun. Thus in, "I know the man, the man lives close by," the first noun ("man") is in the accusative, the second in the nominative, therefore the substitute of the latter must be *he* or *who*, though the antecedent is in the accusative.

neuter pronouns *alles*, *all*; *daß*, *that*; *was*, *what*, are employed in reference to people generally, or promiscuously: *Alles rennt*, *all are running*, or *every one runs*; *Was sich sucht*, *daß findet sich*, (those) *who seek each other, will find each other*.—We have noticed before (§ 64. Obs. 2. and § 59. Obs. 3.) the pronouns *es* and *daß* when referring to a preceding clause or a predicate: they are however used also, especially *es*, in reference to a following clause, but always implying that the substance of that clause has previously engaged our attention; as, *Er läugnet es*, *daß er sie liebe*; *ja er behauptet* (not *es*, this being quite new to the hearer) *sogar*, *daß er sie nie gesehen habe*, *he denies (it) that he loves her*; *nay, he even maintains that he has never seen her*. In several idiomatic expressions the accusative *es* has nearly the indefinite import of the impersonal *es*, and is then not always translatable in English; as, *es mit einem aufnehmen*, *to cope with* (or *not to fear*) *a person*; *es mit jemanden halten*, *to be of the sentiment of* (also *to be partial to*) *a person*.

3. Two or more substantives, or a pronoun and a noun, signifying the same subject, the first being explained or limited by the following, are said to be in apposition, and must be in the same case, but not necessarily of the same gender and number; though, if susceptible of a feminine termination (§ 33.), the latter noun ought to take it if the former be of the feminine gender; as,

Die Religion, unser Trost, or unsere Trösterinn, (better than unser Tröster), *religion our comfort*, or *our comforter*; *ich*, Ihr Freund (or Ihre Freundin, if a female speaks), *I, your friend*; seine Thorheiten, die Quelle seines Unglücks, *his follies, the source of his misfortunes*; Mein Bruder, der Kaufmann, kennt den Grafen, Ihren Oheim, *my brother, the merchant, knows the count, your uncle*; ein Werk Tasso's, des großen Dichters, *a work of Tasso's, the great poet*; Ich bewundere ihn als Soldaten, *I admire him as a soldier*—i. e. the object being the soldier—but als Soldat would signify that *I*, the subject, *am a soldier*; Ich stehe nur ein Jüngling, zwischen euch, den Vielerfahrenen, *I stand but a youth between you, the men of long experience*.

Obs. 3. All common names, not merely those of persons, preceding proper names denoting the same subject, are considered in German as being in apposition, and therefore joined without a preposition. Hence we not only say, *König Georg*, *king George*; *der Apostel Paul*, *the Apostle Paul*; but also, *der Monat May*, *the month of May*; *die Stadt Hamburg*, *the city of Hamburg*; *die Insel Malta*, *the isle of Malta*; *das Königreich Spanien*, *the kingdom of Spain*. But we must say, *der*

König von Spanien, *the king of Spain*, because the two nouns denote different subjects.—See also § 49. *Obs.* 3.

4. Nouns denoting different objects joined by conjunctions, are in the same case, and the pronouns referring to them must be in the plural number; as, *Der Nachbar und sein Bruder mit ihren Söhnen und Töchtern waren dort*, *the neighbour and his brother with their sons and daughters were there*; *Ich liebe sie mehr als ihn*, *I love her more than (I love) him*; *Ich liebe sie mehr als er*, *I love her more than he (does)*. In the latter example the conjunction *als* connects the pronouns *ich* and *er*, in the preceding one *sie* and *ihn*.

Obs. 4. As may be seen from the last example, the case of the adjoined noun generally depends on some word understood. Hence, too, the noun or pronoun in an answer agrees in case with that of the question, as both depend on the same word; as, *Wer kommt da*, *who comes there?* *der Nachbar*, *the neighbour*; *Wem gehört es?* *mir*, *to whom does it belong?* *to me*; *Wessen Hut ist das?* *des Vettters*, *whose hat is that?* *our cousin's*.—With reflexive verbs (§ 67.) the noun preceded by *als*, or *wie*, agrees with the nominative, not with the reflexive pronoun; but with transitive verbs used reflexively, it may, according to the sense, agree with either; as, *Er betrug sich wie ein Narr*, *he behaved like a fool*; *Er betrachtet sich als einen Märtyrer*, *he considers himself as a martyr*; *Er betrachtet sich immer, wie ein Gock*, *he is always viewing himself, like a cock* (does).

Obs. 5. In conclusion we may remark, that when two or more individuals of the same species, or class, are respectively qualified by a different adjective, the substantive, when expressed only after the last adjective, is in German, contrary to the English practice, put in the singular number; as, *der englische und französische König*, *the English and French kings*; *die deutsche, griechische und lateinische Sprache*, *the German, Greek, and Latin languages*. The singular number is used sometimes also when a substantive refers to each of the individuals implied in the sentence; as, *Sie würden Gefahr laufen den Kopf zu verlieren*, *they would incur the danger of losing their heads*.

That after any number ending in *ein*, the noun is in the singular, and after those ending in *halb*, in the plural, has already been noticed. (See pp. 115 and 119.)

CASES.

§ 121. The nominative is independent, and therefore cannot, in strictness, be considered as the regimen of any other

word. The other cases must depend on, *i. e.* be the regimen of, some other word in the sentence. Such governing words are either verbs, adjectives (or adverbs), substantives (which, however, can govern only the genitive*—see § 123.), or prepositions. The latter having been fully explained before (§ 100 to § 109), will not be further noticed here.

USE OF THE NOMINATIVE.

§ 122. The subject of the verb, whether the latter be active or passive, is in the nominative case (§ 23. *obs.*); as *Der König kommt, the king comes*; *Er wird begrüßt, he is greeted*. With the following verbs not only the subject but also the noun following them, is in the nominative case: *seyn, to be*; *werden, to become*; *bleiben, to remain*†; and the verbs importing *being named*, viz. *heißen*, in the sense of *to be called*; and the passives of the verbs *nennen, to name*; *taufen, to christen*; *schelten or schimpfen, to call by way of abuse*; as, *(Er ist (or wird) ein reicher Mann, he is (or becomes) a rich man*; *Ich bleibe Ihr Freund, I remain your friend*; *Er wurde von ihr ein Betrüger genannt or gescholten, he was called a cheat by her*. The impersonal, *es giebt, there is*, however, governs the accusative, like the personal verb *geben, to give*: *Ginst gab es einen Vater, der &c., once there was (or lived) a father, who &c.*

Obs. 1. The two nominatives in the above verbs may be considered as being in apposition, implying that the two nouns denote one and the same individual; hence when *seyn* and *werden* denote possession, they govern other cases (see pp. 313 and 320). Hence also the verbs of naming, used actively, govern both nouns in the accusative; as, *Sie nannte, bief, or schalt, den Mann einen Betrüger, she called the man a cheat*. We may further observe here, that when the identity is given as a mere individual opinion, the second noun is construed with *für*. *Der Mann wird für einen Betrüger gehalten, the man is thought (to be) a cheat*. The second noun is construed with *zu* if the character denoted

* The second nouns in such expressions as "brother to the king," "secretary to the duke," are in German in the genitive.

† The verb *scheinen, to appear*, is generally classed with these verbs; but the second nominative evidently belongs to the verb *seyn*, which is understood; as, *Er scheint mir ein Thor (i. e. zu seyn), he appears to me (to be) a fool*.

is caused through the action expressed by the verb; as, Er wurde von ihr zum Bettler gemacht; *he was made a beggar by her*. See also the 7th signif. of zu § 105.

Obs. 2. What in some languages is called the vocative case, that is, the object addressed or called upon, is in German always in the nominative, being in fact unconnected with any other word; as, Ihnen, mein Herr! darf ich es sagen, *to you, sir! I may say it*; Ihnen meinem Herren, would mean *to you, who are my master*. Interjections, too, are commonly joined with a nominative case: O ich Unglücklicher, *O unfortunate man that I am!*; o der Narr, *O the fool!* Sometimes they are joined also with other cases; as, o des Narren, *O the fool!*; o mich unglücklichen, *O unhappy me!* Wehl, weh, and heil are joined with the dative case; as wehl mir! *it is well for me*; wehe ihm! *woe to him!*; heil dem König! *God save (lit. hail) the king!*

THE GENITIVE.

§ 123. Concerning the use of this case the following rules may be observed:—

1. One substantive determining another denoting a *different thing* is put in the genitive case; as,

Der Eigenthümer des Gartens, *the proprietor of the garden*; des Nachbars Haus, *the neighbour's house*; die Länge der Straße, *the length of the street*; ein Theil der Gesellschaft, *a part of the company*; Die Liebe der Eltern, *the love of the parents* (in which phrase it can be known only from the context whether the *parents* be the subject or the object of love).

Obs. 1. It is hardly necessary to observe that after numerals, adjectives (especially in the superlative), and adjective pronouns, the governing substantive is often understood; as, zwei dieser Leute, *two (individuals) of these people*; der dritte des Monats, *the third (day) of the month*; der höchste aller Berge, *the highest (mountain) of all mountains*; jeder derselben, *each (person) of them*; viele der Helden, *many of the heroes* (compare § 52.). Poets sometimes even omit the adjective pronoun: Die Rache die mich verfolgt ist nicht (supply die) des irdischen Richters, *the revenge which pursues me is not that of the earthly judge*.

Obs. 2. From some of the above examples, and from those in § 119, it will be seen that in German, as in English, it is often optional to put the genitive either before or after the noun on which it depends. It must, however, be observed, that this option ceases, at least in prose, if the governing word has reference to number, and the genitive is joined with an article; for then the genitive preceding the governing word denotes its *species* or *kind*, whilst when following, it denotes a

quantity of *definite* individuals, of which the governing word forms a part. Thus, *Es giebt der Betrüger viele* (which is equivalent to *viele Betrüger*) in der Welt, denotes *there are many cheats in the world*; but *viele der Betrüger* means, *many of the cheats*; *Der guten Gemälde war nur eine kleine Anzahl im Saale*, of good pictures there was but a small number in the saloon; but *eine kleine Anzahl der guten Gemälde war &c.*, would mean, a small number of *THE* good pictures was &c. (the others being elsewhere). Numerals governing the genitive of personal pronouns are hardly ever used in a partitive sense—i. e. they express the *whole*, and not a *part*, of the quantity of that genitive, the latter denoting, in the way just mentioned, the kind of persons indicated by the numeral, and therefore must always precede it; as, *Ich habe ihrer* (or *deren*, see p. 134) *mehrere*, *I have several of them*, i. e. *of their kind*; *unser einer*, *one like* (not *of*, for which we say *einer von uns*) *us*, or *like me*; *Deiner vier können das nicht aufheben*, *four like thee cannot lift that up**. Analogous to this are such expressions as, *Es sind unser sechs* (*ihrer acht*), *there are six of us* (*eight of them*). This observation applies, in a great measure, also to relative pronouns; as, *Bücher, deren er viele besitzt, von denen* (not *deren*) *er aber wenige gelesen hat*, *books of which he has many, but of which he has read few*. It will be perceived that the first relative refers to books as a species, the second to particular books.

Obs. 3. When two nouns are joined, of which the first denotes quantity, (i. e. weight, measure, or number,) and the second the substance or species of it, the latter is, generally, not declined, except that it takes the plural inflection; as, *ein Pfund Fleisch*, a pound of meat; *ein Stück Brod*, a piece of bread; *eine Menge Kinder*, a number of children; *drei Flaschen Wein*, three bottles of wine (see also the 3rd rule of § 43). Such expressions as *ein Regiment Husaren*, a regiment of hussars; *eine Heerde Schafe*, a flock of sheep; *ein Gericht Fische*, a dish of fish; *eine Schnur Perlen*, a string of pearls; *ein Wagen Holz*, a wagon-load of wood; &c., are of the same description, the first substantives having reference to the quantity of the latter. In the preceding cases the first noun may be considered as defining the extent of the quantity of the second, so that the two nouns do not denote different objects; but when the second noun is preceded by a definitive, so that its quantity is of a larger extent than that indicated by the governing noun, it is put in the genitive, or construed with *von*; as, *ein Glas des besten Weines*, or *von dem besten Weine*, a glass of the best wine; *eine Menge dieser Vögel*, a number of these birds. It may easily be perceived that the nouns deno-

* As the genitive relation is, with reference to personal pronouns, expressed either by *von* (see *Obs. 4.*) or by possessive pronouns, this is the only way in which their genitive can be used according to the first rule, i. e. as the regimen of a noun (expressed or understood).

ting quantity are construed in German as numerals, and we say, eine Menge Eier, and eine Menge dieser Eier, *a number of eggs*, and *a number of these eggs*, just as we say zwölf (twelve) Eier, and zwölf dieser Eier. However, when preceded by an adjective, the second noun may be put either in the genitive, or in the same case with the preceding noun, which latter is especially the case in colloquial language; as, Hier ist ein Glas rothen Weines, or rother Wein, *here is a glass of red wine*; ein Pfund holländischer, or holländische, Butter, *a pound of Dutch butter*. In the dative plural, the second noun occurs with and without its inflection of *n*; as, mit einer Menge Kindern, or Kinder, *with a number of children*.

Obs. 4. The relation of the genitive is frequently expressed by the preposition *von*. Besides the cases mentioned before (p. 249, under *von*), we may notice the following:—1.) With all personal pronouns, as well as with adjective pronouns when not preceded by an article (§ 62); chiefly, however, when a partitive relation is implied; as, der beste von euch, *the best of you*; zwei von ihnen, *two of them*; ein Freund von mir, *a friend of mine**; das Ende davon, *the end of it (or of that*; see § 64. *Obs. 4.*); der letzte von allen, *the last of all*; eines von beiden, *one of the two (things)*. 2.) When implying a severing; as, Nimm ein Pfund von diesem Pulver, *take a pound of this powder*; die Wolle von zwei Schafen, *the wool of two sheep*. The mere partitive relation, without the idea of severance, is best rendered by the genitive case; though in several instances either construction is admissible; as, ein Theil der Stadt, or von der Stadt, *a part of the city*; der treueste meiner Freunde or von meinen Freunden, *the most faithful of my friends*. 3.) After all superlatives with *am* (§54.), Er ist am glücklichsten von allen ihren Kindern, *he is the happiest of all her children*; Der Adler fliegt am höchsten von allen Vögeln, *the eagle flies highest of all birds*. 4.) Before proper names of places, die Einwohner von Paris, *the inhabitants of Paris*; die Belagerung von Prag, *the siege of Prague*. Other geographical names, too, when without an article, are more commonly construed with *von*, especially if referring to possession, or to the title of a person: die Eroberung von Malta, *the conquest of Malta*; der König von England, *the king of England*; der Herzog von Braunschweig, *the Duke of Brunswick*. The pronouns jemand †, *somebody*; niemand †, *nobody*; wer,

* Before substantives with the Saxon genitive (—s) the English *of* is likewise rendered in German by *von*; as, *a soldier of the king's*, einer von des Königs Soldaten; *a friend of my father's*, einer von den Freunden meines Vaters.

† Except the adjectives in such expressions as jemand fremdes, *some stranger*; niemand anders, *none else*, &c., which are genitives, existing already in Old German (see Grimm's *D. Grammatik*, vol. iv.) However, according to Adelung, such expressions ought to be avoided as vulgar.

who; and *derjenige, he who*, do not govern the genitive case, and the partitive relation implied must be rendered by one of the prepositions, *von, aus, or unter*; as, *niemand von (or unter) euch, none of you*; *jemand aus der Familie, some one of the family*; *diejenigen unter (or von) den Studenten, those of the students*. Before the name of the month in dates, and after numerals in *erlei* (§ 57.), the English *of* is not expressed in German; and seldom after the nouns, *Art, sort or kind*; and *Gattung, species*; as, *den zwölften April, the 12th of April*; *allerlei Unsinn, all sorts of nonsense*; *eine Art Holz, a sort of wood*; *eine Gattung Fische (also von Fischen), a species of fish*.

2. With regard to verbs governing the genitive, the following lists are generally given by grammarians:

a.) Neuter verbs:

<i>achten, to mind.</i>	<i>pflegen, to nurse.</i>
<i>bedürfen, to stand in need of.</i>	<i>seyn, to be (in the sense of belonging to, see obs. 5.).</i>
<i>begehren, to wish or ask for.</i>	<i>schonen, to spare.</i>
<i>brauchen, to want.</i>	<i>spotten, to mock.</i>
<i>entrathen, to dispense with.</i>	<i>versehlen, to miss.</i>
<i>entbehren, to be, or do, without.</i>	<i>vergeßen, to forget.</i>
<i>erwähnen, to mention.</i>	<i>wahr nehmen or gewahr werden, to perceive, become aware of.</i>
<i>genießen, to enjoy.</i>	<i>warten, to wait for; also, to tend.</i>
<i>gedenken, to remember, think of.</i>	
<i>harren, to wait for.</i>	
<i>lachen, to laugh at.</i>	

Examples: *Er achtet meines Rathes nicht, he does not mind my advice* (when denoting *to esteem*, *achten* requires the accusative); *Wir pflegten seiner (or ihn, see obs. 5.), we nursed him*; *Gedenke meiner, remember me.*

b.) Reflective verbs, i. e. verbs governing the genitive besides the accusative of the reflective pronoun:

<i>sich annehmen, to interest oneself for, to take the part of.</i>	<i>sich besinnen, to recollect, to consider.</i>
— <i>bedienen, to make use of.</i>	— <i>entäußern, to divest oneself of.</i>
— <i>bestreßen, to apply oneself to, to study.</i>	— <i>enthalten, to abstain from.</i>
— <i>begeben, to resign, give up.</i>	— <i>entschlagen, to dismiss (from one's mind), to rid oneself of.</i>
— <i>bemächtigen or bemeistern, to take or bring into one's possession.</i>	— <i>entfinnen or erinnern, to remember, to call to one's recollection.</i>
— <i>bescheiden, to resign, submit.</i>	— <i>erbarmen, to take pity.</i>

sich erwehren, <i>to defend oneself.</i>	meißen, or erübnen, <i>to dare a thing).</i>
— freuen or erfreuen, <i>to rejoice at.</i>	sich versehen, <i>to expect, to be prepared for (a thing).</i>
— getrösten, <i>to hope and trust.</i>	— weigern, <i>to refuse.</i>
— rühmen, <i>to boast of.</i>	
— schämen, <i>to be ashamed of.</i>	
— unterfangen, unterwinden, ver-	

Examples: Ich erbarmte mich seiner, *I took pity on him*; Bedienen Sie sich dessen, *make use of it*; Ich konnte mich des Lachens nicht enthalten, *I could not refrain from laughing*; Er hatte sich dessen nicht versehen, *he was not prepared for that.*

c.) The following transitive verbs, which having two objects, a person and a thing, take the former in the accusative and the latter in the genitive:

anklagen, <i>to accuse, indict.</i>	entwöhnen, <i>to break (one) of a habit, to wean.</i>
berauben, <i>to bereave.</i>	überführen, <i>to convince; to convict.</i>
beschuldigen, <i>to impute, charge.</i>	überheben, <i>to spare, save (one the trouble).</i>
entbinden or entledigen, <i>to release, deliver.</i>	überzeugen, <i>to convince, persuade.</i>
entblößen or entkleiden, <i>to divest or deprive of.</i>	versichern, <i>to assure.—See, however, p. 320.</i>
entladen, <i>to relieve, disburden.</i>	würdigen, <i>to deign.</i>
entlassen, <i>to dismiss from.</i>	zeihen, <i>to accuse.</i>
entsetzen, <i>to discharge or dismiss (from an office).</i>	

Examples: Einen des Diebstahls anklagen or beschuldigen, *to accuse one of theft*; Er wurde seines Eides enthunden, und seines Amtes entsetzt, *he was released from his oath and dismissed from his office.*

Obs. 5. We add the following remarks:—1.) Several verbs of the above lists are construed also with prepositions (an, von, or über) instead of the genitive, especially in colloquial language. Thus we may say von etwas entblößen or entkleiden, *to bare, or strip of anything*; sich an etwas erinnern, *to recollect a thing*; über einen spotten*, or lachen*, *to mock, or laugh at one*; sich über etwas freuen, *to rejoice at anything*. All the verbs of the first list, with the exception of gedenken (in the sense of *mentioning*), harren, lachen, and spotten, often take the accusative instead of the genitive. Upon the whole it may be said, that the genitive as the regimen of verbs, is more peculiar to poetry; where, indeed, many other verbs are, in imitation of the Old language, joined with the genitive, although they never take this case in

* With the genitive, however, lachen and spotten imply rather *defiance*, or *contemptuousness*, which is not the case with the above construction.

prose. Thus we sometimes meet with such expressions as, *sich jedes Greuels erfreuen*, to dare any atrocity; *seines Falles frohlocken*, to exult at his fall; *der Rosen † pflücken*, to pluck roses; *des Weines † trinken*, to drink wine. 2.) Several verbs are only in particular expressions joined with the genitive; as, *einen des Landes verweisen*, to banish one from the country; *einen eines Bessern belehren*, to teach one better, to correct one of a wrong opinion; *sich seiner Haut wehren*, to defend one's life; *der Hoffnung*, or *des Glaubens*, *leben*, to live in the hope, or in the belief; *sich bei einem Rathe erholen*, to ask advice of anybody; *es lohnt der Mühe nicht*, it is not worth the trouble; and several others, which must be learned from practice. 3.) The verb *seyn*, like the verb *to be* in English, is joined with the genitive, if *property*, or *belonging to*, is implied; as, *So gebet dem Kaiser was des Kaisers ist*, render therefore unto Cæsar the things which are Cæsar's. See also § 59, Obs. 1. But in this and similar instances the genitive may perhaps depend upon a noun understood; in many other instances, however, the case seems to depend merely on the verb; as, *Ich bin Ihrer Meinung*, I am of your opinion; *Er ist reinen Herzens*, he is of a pure heart; *Das ist meines Amtes nicht*, that is not my business or duty; *Sie ist meines Geschlechtes*, she is of my sex, &c.

3. The following is a list of the adjectives and adverbs that require the genitive case:—

[Those marked with a star may be construed indifferently with the accusative or genitive.]

ansichtig (werden), (to get) a sight of.	ing, with respect to.
bedürftig or benötigt, in want or need of.	kundig, acquainted with, skilled in.
bewußt, conscious of.	*los, rid.
eingedenk, remembering, mindful of.	mächtig, in possession or master of.
fähig, capable of.	*müde, satt, or überdrüssig, tired, or sick of.
froh (werden), enjoying, happy with.	schuldig, guilty of.
*gewahr (werden), (to become) aware of.	sicher, sure, certain of.
gewärtig, expecting.	theilhaft or theilhaftig, partaking in.
gewiß, certain of.	verdächtig, suspected of.
*gewohnt, accustomed to.	verlöstig, forfeited.
habhaft (werden), (to get) possession of.	*voll, full of.
hinsichtlich or rücksichtlich, regard-	wert, worth; worthy of.
	würdig, worthy of.

† This is analogous to the French article partitive, which was in full use in old German. See Grimm's Deutsche Grammatik, Vol. 4.

Examples: Ich bin dessen (or das) müde, *I am tired of that*; Er ist seiner Sache gewiß, *he is certain of his point*; einer Sache gewärtig seyn, *to be in expectation of a thing*; Ich bin dieser Ehre nicht würdig (or werth), *I am not worthy of this honour*; Es ist der Mühe werth, *it is worth while* (in reference to price, werth requires the accusative: Es ist das Geld werth, *it is worth the money*); Sie ist dessen (or dazu) fähig, *she is capable of it*; etner (or eine) Sache gewahr werden, *to perceive or descry anything*; seines Lebens froh werden, *to enjoy one's life* (froh über etwas, denotes *glad of anything*); voll guten Weines (or guten Wein), *full of good wine*. When compounded with un they govern the same case; as, meiner Warnung uneingedenk, *unmindful of my warning*; des Weges untundig, *unacquainted with the way*.

Poets join a great many adjectives with the genitive—as frei, ledig, stolz, &c.—which usually are construed with prepositions.

4. The genitive is often used as a mere modification of the verb, without being the regimen of any other word in the proposition*, and is then called the *adverbial genitive*. Thus the adverbs formed from adjectives combined with Weise, or Maßen, are adverbial genitives,—see page 219. Of the same nature are the genitives of the 2nd remark in the last *Obs.* Time also is frequently denoted by genitives of this description.—See § 106, *Obs.* The adverbial genitive, which, as may be seen from the examples here alluded to, mostly consists of a substantive and an adjective, or participle, cannot however be employed optionally of all nouns, but is limited to particular expressions sanctioned by usage, of which we subjoin some further examples:—

gerades Weges, *straightways*; meines Wissens, *as far as I know*; ebener Erde wohnen, *to live on the ground floor*; Gehe deiner Wege (or deines Weges), *go your way*; größten Theils, *for the most part*; neben den Füßen, *immediately* (*stante pede* in Latin); unverrichteter Sache, *without having obtained one's end*, &c.

USE OF THE DATIVE.

§ 124. The dative does not denote the immediate object

* Hence it is sometimes called the *genitive absolute* when used in this way.

of the action (which is the office of the accusative), but the mediate or indirect object of it, the person* for whose benefit or injury it is done. Accordingly, with verbs that have both an immediate or direct, and a mediate or indirect object, the former is put in the accusative and the latter in the dative; as,

Ich zeigte (schickte, gab, versprach, verkaufte) Ihrem Bruder den Ring, I showed (sent, gave, promised, sold) to† your brother the ring; einem etwas verrathen (sagen, schreiben, &c.), to reveal (tell, write, &c.) anything to a person (einen verrathen means, to betray a person); einem Schmerzen verursachen, to cause pain to a person; Er hat mir ein Buch gekauft, he has bought (for†) me a book. (See also the examples, p. 59.)

Obs. 1. In English, as may partly be seen from the preceding examples, the sign of the dative case is *to*, or *for*, either expressed or understood. However, when *to* notes merely the object of the direction, without any reference to interest or concern, it is not the mark of the dative, and must then be rendered in German by *an*, or *zu*; as, *Address yourself to him*, *wenden Sie sich an ihn*. Thus also, *Ich schickte meinen Bedienten zu Ihrem Oheim* denotes, *I sent my servant to your uncle*, implying for some purpose of my own, for instance, to inquire for something; but *Ich schickte Ihrem Oheim meinen Bedienten* means, *I sent your uncle my servant*, namely, for his benefit, *e. g.* to assist him. We may say *einem*, or *an einen*, *schreiben*, *to write to a person*; the former phrase has some indirect reference to what we communicate, though this may not be mentioned, and generally relates to persons who expect to hear from us; but *an einen schreiben* means merely, *to address a person in writing*: *Ich schrieb an den König, I wrote to the king*. Thus also *sagen*, if equivalent to *tell*, is construed with the dative; but if construed with *zu*, it can be rendered only by *say*; as *Ich sagte ihm alles, I told him everything*; *Sagen Sie meinem Kutscher, daß &c., tell (to) my coachman that, &c.*; *Das ist sonderbar, sagte er zu ihr, this is strange, said he to her*. When *to* refers merely to the outward form or behaviour, it must be rendered by *gegen*; as, *He was polite (rude, condescending, &c.) to me*, *er war höflich (groß, herablassend, &c.) gegen mich*.

* The accusative applies equally to persons or things; but the dative, from its implying the idea of being interested in an event, is naturally applicable only to persons, or personified objects; for which reason it is also called the personal case. It must be allowed, however, that in many of the instances wherein inanimate objects are in the dative, the personification is not very obvious. See *Obs. 4*.

† See the next *Obs*.

For, as the mark of the dative in construction with verbs, has the accessory idea of causing gratification, or the contrary; but if denoting merely *providing for*, without any reference to the feeling of the object, it is rendered by *für*; as, *Ich habe Ihnen etwas mitgebracht*, *I have brought something for you*,—i. e. for your gratification; *Für wen* (not *wem*, unless we know that it is intended as a present) *kaufen Sie das Pferd?* *for whom do you buy this horse?* *Gott sorgt für uns alle*, *God provides for us all* (compare also *Obs. 8*, of this section, and § 105, *Obs. 8*). In some instances the German dative is rendered in English by *from*; as, *Er verhehlte mir die Wahrheit*, *he concealed the truth from me*; *Sie stahl ihm die Uhr*, *she stole the watch from him*. As the regimen of compound verbs, the noun corresponding to it in English is frequently governed by a preposition answering to the German separable particle;—see the examples of the next rule. Poets use the dative also where, in prose, a preposition is used; as, *Ich staune dem* (for *über das*) *Wunder*, *I am astonished at the wonder*.

Obs. 2. The dative *mir*, for *me*, is often, but chiefly in colloquial language, used emphatically, implying that a thing is quite *after one's mind* or *idea*, or, ironically, the contrary; as, *Da lobe ich mir das Soldaten Leben*, *I praise a soldier's life, that is the life for me*; *Das nenne ich mir einen Helden*, *that is what I call a hero*. The pronouns *dir*, for *thee*, and *Ihnen*, for *you*, are sometimes used in a similar manner to excite the hearer's attention, or surprise; as, *Das ist Ihnen ein Mann, der versteht Ihnen alles*, *that is a man for you, he understands anything*. With an imperative, *mir* has often the force of rendering the order more authoritative; as, *Thuc mir dem Knaben nichts zu Leide*, *do not do any harm to the boy* (if you will not offend me)*.

The following special rules on the use of the dative are, for the most part, but illustrations of the above definition of this case:—

1. If the object of a compound verb depends chiefly on the separable particle, it is in the dative, if it be a person (see *Obs. 4*), whether the verb be transitive, governing an accusative besides, or intransitive; as,

einem etwas auflegen (*unterlegen*, or *vorlegen*), *to lay anything upon* (*under*, or *before*) *a person*,—which may be solved into *etwas auf* (*unter*, or *vor*) *einen legen* (see however *Obs. 4*); *einem etwas einreden*, *to per-*

* This use of the personal pronouns is, as may be seen from some of the above examples, not foreign to the English idiom, and more especially in the imperative: "Rob me the treasury," says Falstaff; which we should best render literally, *Plündere mir die Schatzkammer*.

suade a person to any thing; einem aufschauern, *to waylay* (lit. *to watch for*) a person; einem etwas abkaufen, *to buy anything from a person*.

Except compounds with *an*, which, if implying motion or direction (see *an*, p. 292), require the person to which *an* refers to be in the accusative, if it be the only regimen of the verb; as, *einen anreden, ansehen, anlächeln, to address, to look at, to smile at, a person*. But if no motion or direction is implied, or if there be two objects of the verb, the person must be in the dative, according to the preceding rule; as, *Das steht mir nicht an, that does not fit, or suit, me*; einem etwas anhängen, *to attach anything to a person*.

Obs. 3. The preceding rule obtains also with verbs compounded with the particles, *zuvor, bevor, voran, or voraus, before*; *vorüber* or *vorbei, by* (see § 107, *Obs. 4*); and the object referred to by the particle is therefore in the dative; as, *Er eilte mir voraus, he hastened on before me*; *Sie kommen mir zuvor, you anticipate me* (lit. *you come before me*).

It needs hardly to be observed, that the above rule cannot apply to compounds in which the import of the particle is not distinctly or separately felt; as in such verbs the case required depends on the sense conveyed by the whole compound, and not on that of any component part. Thus, *abdancken, to dismiss*; *aussprechen, to bear, govern an accusative*, though *dancken, to thank*, and *stehen, to stand*, are neuter verbs in German. Such accusatives, however, originated probably in the idiom noticed p. 323, Rule *d*.

Obs. 4. In the preceding examples the dative depending on the particle, indicates that the object is interested in the action; but when a local relation only is to be indicated, the governed noun being either a thing, or a person considered merely as an object in space, or time, it is construed with a preposition, which in some instances is repeated as a component part of the verb (*etwas an einen Pfahl anbinden, to tie anything to a post*; see also the end of *Obs. 1*, § 107); but more commonly the simple verb is used in such cases; as, *Man hat zu viel auf den Wagen geladen, they have loaded too much upon the waggon* (though we should say, *Man hat dem Thier zu viel aufgeladen, they have laden the beast too much*; the dative implying that the animal, as a sentient being, suffers from it); *etwas unter den Tisch, or vor das Haus, legen, to lay anything under the table, or before the house*. The learner must therefore not confound the two constructions, though they should both govern the same case. Thus, *Er stand mir bei* denotes, *he assisted me*; *Er stand bei mir, he stood near me*; *Ich wartete ihm auf, I waited upon*

him; Ich wartete auf ihn, *I waited for him*; einem nachlaufen, *to run after one* (in order to overtake him); nach einem laufen, *to run for a person*. Usage, however, does not always observe this analogy, but requires sometimes a preposition in reference to persons, and sometimes *vice versa*, the mere dative in reference to things. Thus we say, sich bei einem einschmeicheln, *to insinuate oneself with a person*; von einem abfallen (for einem abfallen, which is also used), *to fall off* (*desert the party of*) *a person*; eine Sache der andern vorziehen, *to prefer one thing to another*.

2. The following verbs, which do not belong to the preceding rule, likewise govern the dative case:—

a.) These intransitive verbs:—

antworten, *to answer*.
 begegnen, *to meet*.
 beägen, *to suit*.
 danken, *to thank*.
 dienen, *to serve*.
 drohen, *to threaten*.
 entfahren, *to slip, or escape from*.

Also all other verbs in which *ent* denotes *away* or *from* (see p. 285).

entsagen, *to renounce*.
 entsprechen, *to answer, correspond*.
 erliegen, or unterliegen, *to sink under, to succumb*.
 fehlen, *to be wanting*; also *to ail*.
 fluchen, *to curse*.
 folgen, *to follow*.
 fröhnen, *to be the drudge*.

gefallen, *to please*.
 gehorchen, *to obey*.
 genügen, *to suffice*.
 gleichen, *to resemble*.
 gratuliren, *to congratulate*.
 helfen, *to help* (with all its compounds, as, ab: auf: aus: helfen).
 leuchten, *to light, show or give light*.
 schaden, *to hurt*.
 schmeicheln, *to flatter*.
 steuern, *to stop, restrain*.
 trauen, *to confide in, to trust*.
 trögen, *to defy, dare*.
 wehren, *to check, to prevent**.
 widersprechen, *to contradict*.
 widerstehen, *to resist*.
 willfabren, *to comply with*.

besides a number of other intransitives, which are also in English construed with *to* as the mark of the dative; as, scheinen, *to appear* (to one); hulbigen, *to do homage*; nügen, frommen, or fruchten, *to be of use*; weichen, *to yield or give way*; rufen, *to call* (in the sense of *to call, to summon*, which is its more common import, it governs the accusative); winken, *to make a sign* (to one), &c.

b.) The following impersonals (compare § 84):—

Es ahnet mir, *my mind forebodes, I have a presentiment*; es beliebt mir,

* When joined with the accusative of the thing, it denotes *to forbid*; Wer kann mir das wehren? *who can forbid me that?* Sich wehren denotes, *to defend oneself*.

I chose, I am pleased; es dünkt mir (or mich), *it seems to me*; es eßelt mir (or mich), *I loath*; es grauet mir, *I feel a dread, or horror*; es geßet mir (gut, or schlecht), *it goes (well, or bad) with me*; es schwindest mir, *I feel giddy*; es träumt mir, *I dream*; also es ist and es wird, referring to the feelings or sensations* (see the examples, p. 201). Further, the following verbs, which are used in the third person only: bekommen, in the sense of *to agree with*; bevor stehen, *to impend*; gebühren, *geziemen, to be becoming*; gelingen, gerathen, glücken, *to succeed*; and the opposite verbs, mißlingen, mißglücken, fehl schlagen, *to fail*; geschehen, *to happen*; mangeln, gebrechen, *to be wanting, to need*; obliegen, *to be incumbent*; passen, *to suit*; sitzen, stehen, or lassen, in the sense of *sitting*; and widerfahren, *to befall*; as, Es geschieht mir Unrecht, *I am wronged*; Ihm fehlt Geld, *he needs money*; Das Kleid steht, or läßt, ihm gut, *the coat fits him well*.

Obs. 5. With the following verbs usage is not uniform regarding the personal object depending on them, which is found both in the dative and the accusative:—ankommen, in the sense of *to befall*: Es kam ihm, or (less commonly, though more analogically—see the exception, p. 317) ihn, eine Furcht an, *fear came on him*; anliegen, in the import of *soliciting*: Er lag mir, or mich, an, *he solicited me*; gelten, *to be intended for*: Wem, or wen, galt dieser Seufzer? *for whom was this sigh?* In the sense of *to be at stake, or to cost*, it is mostly construed with the accusative only: Es gilt mein Leben, *my life is at stake*. Kosten, *to cost*, ought always to take the person in the dative, according to the general rule: Das kostet mir (better than mich, as it is sometimes found) eine Kleinigkeit, *this costs me a trifle*.—Heißen, in the sense of *to bid*, and lehren, *to teach*, take the dative or the accusative of the person if attended by an accusative of the thing, but exclusively the accusative of the person if attended by an infinitive; as, Werieß dir, or dich, dieses? *who bid you this?* Er lehrte mir, or mich, diese Kunst, *he taught me this art*; Er lehrte mich (not mir) schreiben, *he taught me to write*; Werieß dich kommen? *who bid you to come?* versichern, *to assure*, takes

* We may here notice also the idiomatic expressions, Es sey dem (or dem sey) wie ihm will (or wolle), *be that as it may*; Wenn dem so ist, *if that is the case*.

† This accusative, for which the best authorities may be quoted, is disapproved of by Adelung and other grammarians as being against analogy, which requires the person to be in the dative if joined with the accusative of the thing. But this apparent anomaly may be accounted for by supposing the accusative of the thing to be governed by some infinitive understood (in the first of these examples the infinitive thun, *to do*, in the second verstehen, *to understand*, or some other infinitive, might be supplied by the mind); especially as verbs joined with an infinitive without the particle zu (see § 81. Obs. 2), have a tendency to this ellipsis.—See § 82, Obs. 3.

either the person in the dative and the thing in the accusative, or, as stated, p. 312, the person in the accusative and the thing in the genitive: *Er versicherte mir seine, or mich seiner, Freundschaft, he assured me of his friendship.* Accordingly we may say indiscriminately, *Er versicherte mir, or mich, daß er mein Freund sey, he assured me that he was my friend.* In the first case (*er versicherte mir*), the clause, *daß er mein Freund sey*, is a circumlocution of the accusative (*seine Freundschaft*), in the second of the genitive. When denoting *to insure*, it is always construed regularly, viz. the thing in the accusative, and the person, if there be one, in the dative: (*einem*) *ein Schiff versichern, to insure (one) a ship.*

3. The dative is frequently used where in English the genitive, or, which is the same, the possessive pronoun is used; but only when the possessor is interested in the action or state, so that in fact there is at the same time a dative relation involved; as,

Dem Nachbar ist das Haus abgebrannt, the neighbour's house is burnt down; Der Sohn liegt mir frant, my son lies ill; but we say, Es sind viele Gebäude abgebrannt, unter andern des Nachbarns Haus, many buildings are burnt, among others the neighbour's house: for here we do not refer, as in the first example, to the injury sustained, but want merely to point out the house. Take also these examples of the German dative answering to the English genitive: *Er verwundete mir den Arm, he wounded my arm; Man kann den Leuten nicht ins Herz sehen, one cannot look into the hearts of people; Er lachte ihr ins Gesicht, he laughed in her face.* To this rule belong also such expressions as *zur Seite, at the side of; zu Füßen, at the feet of; zur rechten (or zur linken), to the right (or left) of; zu Diensten, at the service of;* as, *Sie stand ihm zur Seite (zur rechten Hand), she stood at his side (at his right hand); Das steht Ihnen zu Diensten, this is at your service.* If *werden* is construed with the dative of the person, there seems to be an ellipsis of *zu Theil, to the share, or lot, of; Mir wurde kein solches Glück (i. e. zu Theil), no such fortune fell to my lot.*

Obs. 6. As in English, the person may be in the accusative as the immediate object of the verb, and yet a part of it mentioned as the peculiar scene, as it were, of the action; as, *Er verwundete mich am Arm, he wounded me in the arm.* If the noun denoting a part of the body, is in the accusative as the regimen of a preposition noting the aim or end of the action, the person may often, according to Adélung, indifferently be put in the dative, or in the accusative. *Du wirst ihm, or ihn, in die Fersen stehen, thou shalt bruise his heel (lit. thou shalt sting him in the heel).*

Yet present usage is decidedly inclined to the accusative of the person in such cases: *Er schlug sie auf den Rücken, he struck her on the back*; *Sie lobte ihn ins Angesicht, she praised him to his face*. The question is however not yet finally decided among grammarians*.

4. Adjectives that are predicated of a subject not in an absolute sense, but relatively, that is, only in relation to the feelings or capacity of a particular person, take that person in the dative. This rule comprehends a very large number of adjectives (see the next *Obs.*). Indeed all adjectives, when joined with the particles *zu*, *too*, and *genug*, *enough*, may fall under this rule.

Examples: *Das ist mir angenehm (erfreulich, gleichgültig, schwer, unmöglich, deutlich, bekannt, nützlich, &c.), that is agreeable (rejoicing, indifferent, difficult, impossible, plain, known, useful, &c.) to me*; *Er ist ihr treu (ergeben, gehorsam, verwandt, &c.), he is faithful (attached, obedient, related, &c.) to her*; *Das ist mir zu weit (zu hoch, zu wenig, &c.), that is too far (too high, too little, &c.) for me*; *Ist Ihnen die Tinte schwarz genug? is the ink black enough for you?*

Obs. 7. The class of adjectives belonging to the preceding rule is too extensive to be enumerated here†; but fortunately this is not necessary, as nearly all of them are also in English construed with the sign of the dative. Indeed, the dative they are joined with, can hardly be

* Generally, when the prepositional phrase determines the end of the action as issuing *immediately* from the nominative, the verb is intransitive, and cannot therefore govern an accusative. With transitive verbs the preposition notes either the scene of the action, and requires then the dative of its object (see the first example in the above *Obs.*), or, if it notes the end, it refers to the passive object. Thus, *Er sprang in das Wasser, he jumped into the water*; *Er stieß sie in das Wasser, he pushed her into the water*: in the first example the prepositional phrase (in das Wasser) points out the end of the agent's energy; in the second this is done by the accusative of the verb (sie), whilst the end marked by the prepositional phrase refers to a later moment, to the effect on the object. So far usage is uniform: the question at issue here is, whether a transitive verb, having an accusative as the object of its aim, may yet be joined with a prepositional phrase to designate that aim more accurately; or, whether the marking of the same moment of the action by two different objects—that of the verb and the preposition—is not analogous to a verb governing two accusatives, which is generally allowed to be against the genius of the German language. In the latter case, either the regimen of the verb or that of the preposition, ought to be in the dative case.

† The long lists given of them by grammarians comprehend after all but a minor part of them.

considered as their regimen; for the usual relation of this case (concern or interest), denoted by it, is implied rather in the whole proposition than in the mere adjective, as may be seen from the fact that substantives too, when used in the same restrictive sense, are joined with the dative case. Thus we say, *Das ist mir eine Kleinigkeit*, *that is a trifle for me*; *Dem Vandalen sind sie Stein*, *to the Vandal they* (the antique marbles) *are but stone* (Schiller).

Obs. 8. In reference to things, these adjectives are construed with a preposition (compare *Obs. 1*); as, *Das ist nützlich zu meiner Reise*, *that is useful for my journey*; *nothwendig zu meiner Absicht*, *necessary for my intention*; *gut genug für den Winter*, *good enough for the winter*. Even when referring to persons they admit sometimes prepositions, especially when joined with *zu*, or *genug*. Thus we would indiscriminately say, *Das ist mir*, or *für mich*, *zu theuer*, *that is too dear for me*. Nevertheless, on a closer examination it will often be found that the dative has reference to the will or liking of the person, whilst the preposition refers to fitness or necessity arising from external circumstances. So, for instance, *Das Tuch ist ihm nicht fein genug*, *the cloth is not fine enough for him*, would generally mean that he dislikes the quality; but if I give it as my own opinion, viz. that I *think* the quality unfit for him, he having perhaps never seen it, I must say, *Das Tuch ist nicht fein genug für ihn*.

USE OF THE ACCUSATIVE.

§ 125. With regard to the use of this case we observe as follows:—

1. All transitive verbs govern an accusative as the immediate object of the energy they denote (see p. 54); as, *einen Menschen schlagen* (lieben, hassen, &c.), *to strike* (love, hate, &c.) *a man*; *einen Brief schreiben*, *to write a letter*.

2. Reflective verbs take the accusative of the personal pronoun (see § 87), with the exception of the few mentioned, p. 199, as governing the dative.

3. Most impersonal verbs that in English have the full conjugation, are joined with a noun or pronoun in the accusative, answering to the English nominative; as, *es wundern mich*, *I wonder*,—see § 88. Some govern the dative, for which see p. 318.

4. The accusative is used adverbially, to mark—

a.) Time, for which see § 106, *Obs.*b.) The place along which any motion takes place; as, *Diese Straße muß er kommen, this road he must come*; *Gehe deine Wege, go your way*. Generally some adverb of direction follows the accusative in such instances; as, *den Berg hinauf, up the hill*; *den Fluß hinab, down the river*.c.) The extent of space, or of time; or the weight, or value; as, *eine Meile von hier, a mile from here*; *einige Tage warten, to wait a few days*; *Das wiegt einen Zentner, this weighs a hundred-weight*. This accusative, too, is generally followed by some word (mostly an adjective) of a kindred import—i. e. referring to space, time, &c.; *einen Fuß breit, a foot broad*; *keinen Schritt weiter, no step farther*; *einen Monat alt, a month old*; *fünf Pfund schwer, five pounds in weight*; *einen Thaler werth, worth a dollar*.d.) The continuation of an action till a certain effect is produced; as, *sich die Augen roth weinen, to cry one's eyes red*; *sich todt lachen, to laugh oneself to death*. Of the same description is the accusative of many compound verbs; as, *eine Schuld abarbeiten, to work off a debt*.—See § 90, *Obs. 2*.*Obs. 1.* As in other languages, neuter verbs are joined sometimes with a noun of a kindred import in the accusative, merely to qualify the action; as, *einen schrecklichen Tod sterben, to die a horrible death*; *einen ewigen Schlaf schlafen, to sleep an eternal sleep*. In this construction, too, the accusative is of an adverbial nature.*Obs. 2.* The verbs *fragen, to ask*; and *bitten, to beg*, take sometimes, beside the accusative of the person, the accusative of the neuter pronouns, *etwas, something*; *eines, one thing*; *es, it*; *dieses or das, this*: but only when these pronouns refer to some proposition; as, *Eines bitte ich dich, one thing I beg you* (namely that you should do so and so): *Nur dieses muß ich Sie fragen, ob, &c., only this I must ask you, whether, &c.* But when the objects to which they relate are things, or pronouns referring to things, these verbs must be construed with *um*—*fragen* is in such cases moreover construed also with *nach*; as, *Er bat mich um Geld, he begged money of me*; *Sie haben da viele Bücher, dürfte ich Sie um eines bitten? you have here many books, might I beg one of you?* *einen um Rath (or nach etwas) fragen, to ask a person for advice (or for something)*. See also § 122, *Obs. 1*, regarding the two accusatives of the verbs of naming—*heißen, nennen, &c.*—and § 124, *Obs. 5*, regarding *heißen, to bid*; *lehren, &c.**Obs. 3.* We add the following remarks: 1.) The regimen of an infinitive must not be confounded with that of the principal verb on which that infinitive depends. Thus *Hilf ihn suchen* means, *help to seek him*,

the accusative *ihn* depending on *suchen*, for *helfen* governs the dative only; but *hilf ihm suchen* denotes, *help him to seek*. So also, *Er ließ mir sagen*, *he sent me word*—lit. *he caused (somebody) to tell me*; but we say, *Er ließ mich sagen was ich wollte*, *he allowed me to say what I pleased*. 2.) In descriptions of subjects nouns are frequently put in the accusative case, instead of being construed with *mit*, *with*; as, *Da kommt er, den Stock in der Hand, den Mantelsack auf dem Rücken*, *there he comes, the stick in his hand, the portmanteau on his back*.

USE OF THE VERB.

§ 126. The different kinds of verbs have been sufficiently explained in the preceding part (§§ 79, 80, 87, and 88). We have, however, to add here a few remarks regarding the passive voice:—

When a transitive action is expressed passively, the object of the action, *i. e.* the accusative of the active voice, is put in the nominative, and the agent, the nominative of the former, is construed with *von* (rarely with *durch*—compare § 105. *Obs.* 7). The other oblique cases (genitive and dative), as well as the regimen of prepositions, remain unaltered in the passive voice; as, *Er schickte mir diesen Brief*, *he sent me this letter*; *Dieser Brief wurde mir von ihm geschickt*, *this letter was sent me by him*.—See also the two last examples of *Obs.* 1, § 122, and that quoted p. 312, *Er wurde seines Fides, &c.*

It will therefore be readily perceived, that such English passives as, “I was told,” “We were given to understand,” “She was recommended to use baths,” “You were spoken of,” “The man was sent for,” must be differently rendered in German, since the nominatives of the three first passive verbs are in the active voice, in the dative (“they told [to] me,” &c.), and those of the two last, the regimens of prepositions (“they spoke of you,” &c.). Generally, such passives are rendered in German either actively with the indefinite pronoun *man*, *one*, for their subject, or by the impersonal form of the passive. Thus the above expressions may be translated, *Man sagte mir*, or *es wurde mir gesagt*; *Man gab uns zu verstehen*, or *es wurde uns zu verstehen gegeben*; *Man sprach von Ihnen*, or *es wurde von Ihnen gesprochen*, &c.

The same, of course, applies to all verbs governing only the dative case (§ 124), though in English they appear to be transitive; and such

passives therefore as "He was thanked, flattered, threatened," &c., must be rendered in the above manner, *Es wurde ihm gedankt, geschmeichelt*, gedrohet*; or, *man dankte ihm &c.*

Obs. We add the following remarks:—1.) The transitive verbs noticed § 81, *Obs.* 2, as being joined with infinitives without the particle *zu*, do not admit the passive voice in that construction; and we cannot say, *Er wurde bleiben geheißen*, *he was bid to stay*; *Sie wurde kommen gesehen*, or *gehört*, *she was seen, or heard, coming*; though we say, *Man ließ ihn bleiben*; *Man sah, or hörte, sie kommen*; and without an infinitive, *Sie wurde gesehen, or gehört*, *she was seen, or heard.* 2.) When verbs are construed in the active voice with *von*, ambiguity may sometimes arise in the passive voice, concerning the import of this preposition. Thus, *Eine bedeutende Summe wurde von ihm dafür verlangt*, might mean, *a considerable sum was demanded of him, or, by him, for it*; the former corresponding to *man verlangte von ihm eine &c.*, the latter, to *er verlangte eine &c.* Generally however, the real sense is easily ascertained from the context.

That the simple infinitive is often used passively after certain verbs, has been noticed § 91, *Obs.* 3.—See also § 79, *Obs.* 2, concerning the English participle in *ing* used passively.

PERSON AND NUMBER.

§ 127. The verb must, as in other languages, agree with its subject in person and number, as has been shown §§ 70 and 72. We add here the following rules:

1. A relative pronoun is always considered as the third person, and therefore as subject requires the third person of the verb, even when referring to the first or second: *Glaube mir, der manche tausend Jahre an dieser harten Speise kaut*, *believe me, who have been chewing* (lit. *who chews*) *these many thousand years on this hard food* (Goethe). But in order to avoid this disagreement of import and form, we generally in the latter case repeat the personal pronoun after the relative, and make the verb agree with it; as, *Ich, der ich ihn besser kenne* (for *ich, der ihn besser kennt*), *I, who know him better*; *Vater unser, der du bist im Himmel*, *Our Father which art in heaven*.

2. As in English, if the nominatives to the same verb are of different persons, the first person is preferred to the second, and the second to the third; as, *Meine Schwester und ich befinden uns* (not *sich*) *wohl*, *my sister and I are well*; *Du und dein Bruder möget hier bleiben*

* Such expressions therefore as, *Ich fühlte mich geschmeichelt*, *I felt myself flattered*; *Das Portrait ist geschmeichelt*, *the portrait is flattered*, seem to be against all analogy, though they are often met with in good authors.

und euch unterhalten, *thou and thy brother may stay and amuse yourselves*; Du und ich sind beide eingeladen, *thou and I are both invited*. Generally, however, the pronoun wir, or ihr, is in such cases repeated before the verb; as, Du und ich, wir sind beide eingeladen; Du und dein Bruder, ihr möget &c.

3. In addressing a person by his title, the verb is often, as a mark of respect, put in the third person plural; as, *Euere Excellenz haben befohlen*, &c., *Your Excellency has commanded*, &c.; *Der Herr general hatten die Güte*, &c., *You had the goodness, General*. That the English *you* may be rendered by *Sie*, *Ihr*, and *Er*, the verb agreeing with its respective pronoun, has been already noticed (§ 59, *Obs.* 2).

4. Two or more nouns in the singular forming together the nominative to the verb, generally require a plural verb: *Reichtum und Größe machen nicht immer glücklich*, *riches and greatness do not always make happy*. However, the singular is not unfrequently used, if the predicate is applicable to each of the nominatives severally: *Dein ist das Reich, und die Kraft, und die Herrlichkeit*, *Thine is the kingdom, and the power, and the glory*; *Eines nur ist mir bekannt, was Fürst und Bettler sich wünscht*, *one thing I know only, that the prince and the beggar (equally) wish for*. If, however, the predicate applies to the nominatives conjointly, the singular verb is inadmissible: *Er und sie sind vereint*, *he and she are united*; *Der englische und französische König haben Frieden gemacht*, *the English and French kings have made peace*. In arithmetic, numerals often take a singular verb: *Drei und vier macht (or ist) sieben*, *three and four make seven*; *Zwei mal zwei ist vier*, *twice two are four*.

5. A collective noun in the singular requires, as subject of the verb, the latter to be in the singular number: *Die Regierung hat beschlossen*, &c., *Government has resolved*, &c.; *Die Menge weiß nicht immer was sie will*, *the multitude do not always know what they want*. However, some of the nouns noticed § 123, *Obs.* 3, may take the verb in the plural, if the noun with which they are joined is of that number; as, *Eine Menge Menschen sahen (for sah) es*, *a multitude of people saw it*. The same applies to *eine Anzahl*, *a number of*; *ein Schwarm*, *a swarm*; *ein Duzend*, *a dozen*; *ein Paar*, *a pair, a couple*; *ein Haufen*, *a crowd, a heap*; and a few other nouns of this nature.—*Kein* and *keiner*, *nobody*, and *keiner*, *none (not one)*, always require a singular verb: *Keiner von ihnen weiß es*, *none of them know it*.

Obs. 1. With verbs admitting of two nominatives it is not always easy to ascertain which is the subject, with which the verb ought to agree, and which the predicate. Thus in the next examples, the subject in German is the personal pronoun, and in English it is the demonstrative. It may therefore be useful to observe, that if any of the neuter pronouns, *es*, *it* *daß*, *that*; *dieses*, *this*; and *alles*, *all*;

form one of the two nominatives, the verb must agree with the other : as, Sind Sie das? *is that you?* Dieses sind gute Nachrichten, *these are good news*; Alles Uebrige sind Unwahrheiten, *all the other things are untruths*.—See also § 59, *Obs.* 3, and § 64, *Obs.* 2.

Obs. 2. The nominative to the verb cannot well be omitted, except with some impersonal verbs (see § 88, *Obs.* 3), and in the imperative (see § 131): yet in colloquial language we frequently say, as in English, *bitte, pray*; danke, *thank* (you), for ich bitte, ich danke. In popular language, and in composition imitating that style (as in the drama, or in ballads), all the pronominal nominatives of the verb are often omitted: Wird sie auch schon wieder so bettelarm machen als er selbst ist, (he) *will no doubt make her again as beggarly poor as he is himself* (*Lessing*); Willst heute noch &c., (thou) *will to-day yet &c.* (*Bürger*).—On the other hand, the subject of the verb is sometimes, for emphasis' sake, expressed both by a noun, and its representative, the pronoun; as, Dieses Leben, ach! wie kurz ist es, *this life, ah! how short it is*. See also the example quoted note (*), p. 68†.

USE OF THE TENSES.

§. 128. We have to consider here, 1st, the tenses of the indicative; 2ndly, those of the subjunctive; and lastly, those of the potential auxiliaries; but only in those points in which they differ from the English. The difference in the respective tenses of the passive auxiliaries *seyn* and *werden*, with regard to the time of the action, has been fully explained, § 79. The tenses of the infinitive mood are used nearly as in English.

Obs. 1. The principle in both languages is, that the present infinitive expresses an action contemporary with, or future to, that of the governing verb, the past infinitive one anterior to it; the tense of the governing verb making no difference in the rule; as, Er verspricht (or versprach) mir bald zu kommen, *he promises (or promised) me to come soon*; Es ist (or war) mir lieb, seine Bekanntschaft gemacht zu haben, *I am (or was) glad to have made his acquaintance*; Es schmerzet sie, von Ihnen mißverstanden zu werden, *it grieves her to be misunderstood by you*. In German this rule is always strictly observed; and the past infinitives in such expressions as, “*We hoped to have seen you,*” “*I*

† In the oblique cases, too, the pronoun is sometimes used emphatically in this way; as, ach! laß sie ruhen, die Todten, *ah! let the dead rest* (*Bürger*). The pronoun in such cases is analogous to *es* in the sense of *there* (§ 88, *Obs.* 4); its purpose being to draw more attention to the noun.

wanted to have spoken with him," which are deviations from this rule, must therefore be rendered by present infinitives (sehen, sprechen).

I. THE TENSES OF THE INDICATIVE being used nearly in the same manner as in English (see § 69), we shall notice only those cases in which the two languages differ in their use :—

1. When an action or state begun before the present time, continues at the present moment, the present tense must be used in German; as, *Ich kenne diesen Mann seit langer Zeit, I have known this man for a long time; Wie lange sind Sie in England? how long have you been in England? Wie lange sind Sie in England gewesen? would mean, how long were you in England? See also the first example in § 127.*

2. The present implying more of certainty, and the future more of contingency, the former is often used in reference to future time, when we speak with full confidence of the occurrence, and the latter in reference to present time, to imply mere supposition. This use of the tenses in question is not foreign to the English idiom, but is not so extensive as in German, as may be seen from these examples: *Wir reisen morgen ab, we depart tomorrow; Das thut er gewiß nicht, that he will certainly not do; Er wird es jezt schon wissen, he will know it by this time; Er wird wohl krank seyn, he is ill, I dare say; Er wird wohl Geld von mir borgen wollen, I dare say he wants (literally, he will want) to borrow money of me. In interrogative sentences the imperfect subjunctive of sollen* is used with a similar import, implying however a still greater degree of uncertainty: Sollte er wohl krank seyn? is he ill perhaps?*

3. We have noticed before (see *Obs.* p. 152.), that a single past event, unconnected with other past actions, is in German generally put in the perfect, whilst in English the imperfect is used; and that a succession of past events, in lively narration, is often expressed in the present instead of the imperfect tenses. The latter is sometimes done in English also, though far less frequently. We subjoin a few examples: *Ich habe vorige Woche an Ihren Bruder geschrieben, I wrote last week to your brother; Es hat gestern den ganzen Tag geregnet, it rained all day yesterday; Haben Sie meinen Brief erhalten? did you receive my letter?—Alles war stille, da höre ich jemand klopfen, ich stehe auf, öffne die Thür, &c., everything was silent, when I heard somebody knocking, I rose, opened the door, &c. Schiller, in his Ballads often uses the present time almost throughout a whole tale, and sometimes alternating it with the imperfect.*

* In Old German *sollen* was employed as an auxiliary of the future tense (see Dr. Grimm's *Deutsche Grammatik*, 4 vol.), as it still is in all the other Teutonic languages: in the above and similar propositions, it seems to have still something of that office; see also the 4th import of *sollen*, p. 179.

4. If a verb dependent on another verb denotes an action, or state, not limited by the present time, it is in the present tense, though the leading verb should be in a past tense; as, *Er mußte nicht, daß Sie auf dem Lande leben*, *he did not know that you lived in the country*; *Warum sagten Sie ihm nicht, daß ich Ihr Bruder bin?* *why did you not tell him that I was your brother?*

Obs. 2. This is the case also with conditional clauses, where the imperfect subj. (which, as remarked § 68, *Obs. 1*, implies present time) is used to designate a permanent state, though it be joined with a pluperfect tense: *Alles wäre gut gegangen, wenn er nicht schwach wäre*, *everything would have succeeded, if he had not been weak*, *i. e.* a weak man; *gewesen wäre*, would imply weakness on that particular occasion.

II. THE TENSES OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE.—If we look to the form of the two classes of tenses exhibited in the table, p. 169, we shall find that in all the four tenses of the first class, the finite or inflected verb (*i. e.* the principal verb in simple, and the auxiliary in compound, tenses) is in the present tense, and in those of the second class or of imaginary events, it is in the corresponding imperfect tense, the two conditional tenses answering in form to the two respective futures,—*würde* being the imperfect of *werde*, as *hätte* is that of *habe*. We may therefore call the four tenses of the first class *present*, and the other four *imperfect* tenses of the subjunctive.

It has already been noticed (§ 78), that the first of these two classes is used chiefly in reporting, or, more accurately speaking, in objective clauses, *i. e.* in such as form the object of a preceding verb or verbal noun, and that the peculiar use of the second class or imperfect tenses, is for imaginary events, that is, such as are conceived by the mind in opposition to reality or probability, and which are mostly of a conditional nature. These imperfect tenses however are used also in objective clauses, supplying the place of their corresponding present tenses*, though not *vice*

* Looking to analogy alone, the same distinction of the two sets of tenses that is made when used optatively (see *Obs. 4*), ought to be observed in objective clauses, viz. the present tenses should be used when mere uncertainty of the allegation is implied; the imperfect tenses, on the contrary, when the

versé, the present tenses being never employed in conditional clauses of the above description.

The following are examples: *Er sagt, er sey (or wäre) sehr vergnügt, er habe (or hätte) eine große Summe Geld von seinem Vater erhalten, und werde (or würde) bald abreisen, he says he is very happy, that he has received a large sum of money from his father, and that he will soon depart; Ich hoffe, daß der Brief geschrieben seyn werde, wenn ich zurück komme, I hope the letter will be written when I come back; Das Gerücht ist, daß der Feind geschlagen sey, the report is that the enemy is beaten; Ich würde zufrieden seyn (or, ich wäre zufrieden, see p. 170), wenn ich gesund wäre, und arbeiten könnte, I should be satisfied, if I were in good health, and could work; Wäre er zu Hause gewesen, so hätte er es nicht gelitten, or, so würde er es nicht gelitten haben, had he been at home, he would not have suffered it; Was wäre ich ohne ihn? what should I be without him?*

Obs. 3. In expressing imaginary events, the two languages, as may be seen from the examples just quoted, agree in the use of the tenses. But with regard to objective clauses, they follow different principles: for whilst in English the dependent verb must agree in tense with the leading verb, thus, mediately, depending on the moment of speaking, its tense in German is independent of that moment, and is regulated by the time referred to by the leading verb; that is, the dependent verb is in the present, perfect, or future tense, according as the event denoted by it is contemporary with, anterior, or posterior to, that of the leading verb. Thus if the leading verb, of the first example quoted above (*er sagt*) were in any other tense, it would not alter that of the dependent verbs, as long as they imply the same relative time to the action of saying; as, *Er sagte, or, er hatte oft gesagt, daß er vergnügt sey, &c., he said, or, he had often said, that he was happy, &c.*—Only, with the future tense of dependent verbs the present time, i. e. the moment of speaking, appears to have some influence; for when the contingency expressed by the future subjunctive has ceased at that moment, *würde* would more generally be used than *werde*. Thus, for instance, *Gestern hatten wir noch Hoffnung, daß der Kranke genesen würde, yesterday we had still hopes that the patient would recover; as this implies that these hopes have now vanished, werde would not be so readily used.*

Obs. 4. From what has been observed here, and from § 130, it will be

speaker has reason to doubt it, or to know the contrary. In some instances, indeed, usage seems to comply with this distinction. Thus one would say, *Sind Sie es? ich glaubte es wäre (hardly sey) mein Bruder, is it you? I thought it was my brother.* So also when a future tense expresses an event past at the moment of speaking, and therefore no more uncertain, where *würde* is more commonly employed than *werde*.—See the end of *Obs. 3.*

perceived, that the characteristic of the present tenses of the subjunctive is *uncertainty* of the speaker whether what the verb expresses will prove true, whilst that of the imperfect tenses, where they are used exclusively, is *certainty* that what is stated is *not true*, or, at least, *not probable*. This distinction is strikingly corroborated when the subjunctive mood is used optatively; for then in both languages the imperfect tenses are invariably used in wishing anything *impossible*, or *improbable*, whilst the present tenses are employed for such wishes as may be fulfilled, or where the chances are even; as, *Wollte Gott, daß es anders wäre!* *would to God it were otherwise!* *Hätte ich doch geschwiegen!* *had I been but silent!* *Käme er doch heute noch,* *if he would but come to day;* *Gebe Gott, daß es wahr sey,* *heaven grant that it be true;* *Ich wünsche, daß er bald genesen möge,* *I wish he may soon recover:* the imperfect (*möchte*) would imply that there is not much hope for it.

III. THE TENSES OF THE POTENTIAL AUXILIARIES (§ 81) are used in the same manner as those of other verbs, and the preceding rules on the tenses both of the indicative and subjunctive moods, apply equally to them; since their import (of power, will, or obligation) may be represented either as an assertion of the speaker, or as the object of another verb, or as a mere hypothesis; as,

Er kann uns helfen, *he can help us;* *Er sagt, er könne* uns helfen,* *he says he can help us;* *Gestern konnte er uns nicht helfen, heute könnte er es, wenn er wollte,* *yesterday he could not help us, today he could if he would.* The compound tenses as well as the infinitive mood of these auxiliaries, with the exception of those of *lassen*, *to let*, must in English be rendered by some equivalent (see however the next observations); as, *Wenn ich gewollt hätte,* *if I had liked;* *Sie werden abreisen müssen,* *you will be obliged to depart;* *das Vergnügen Ihnen helfen zu können,* *the pleasure of being able to help you.*—See also the examples in § 81, *Obs. 2.*

Obs. 5. In English, owing to this want of the compound tenses, by which alone a past event can be expressed subjunctively (for the imperfect subjunctive implies present or future, but no past time, see § 78), recourse is had to the *past* infinitive of the governed verb, to express subjunctively the past tense of the governing auxiliary verb, (*i. e.*

* If the leading verb implies an order, or solicitude, the imperfect of these auxiliaries is more usual than their present tense, especially that of *mögen*: *Sage ihm, er möchte, or sollte, ja bald kommen,* *tell him to be sure to come early;* *Sie fürchtet er möchte, or könnte, sie verrathen haben,* *she is afraid he may have betrayed her.*

past obligation, liberty, &c.) instead of completed action, which is its proper import. Thus "you ought to have told me that yesterday," implies an obligation in past time regarding an action not completed at the time referred to: so also "if I could have seen him," is the same as "if I *had been* able to see him." To express this sense in German, the pluperfect subjunctive of the auxiliary is joined with the *present* infinitive. Thus the two preceding examples are rendered, *Sie hätten mir das gestern sagen sollen; Wenn ich ihn hätte sehen können* *: which indeed is the usual way of all verbs to express past time subjunctively (§ 78). It may therefore be laid down as a rule, that in German the preceding construction is always used when the English past infinitive, depending on an auxiliary, does not imply completed action, so that it would be changed into the present infinitive, if the auxiliary referred to present time. Thus the preceding examples in this case would be, "you ought to *tell* me that," "if I could *see* him." But if the past infinitive denotes completed action, so that it would remain unchanged to whatever time its governing auxiliary might refer, the same construction is used in German as in English; as, *You ought to have finished that already, Sie sollten das schon geendigt haben; At ten o'clock we must have left the town, um zehn Uhr müssen wir die Stadt schon verlassen haben; He could not then have received our letter, er konnte damals unsern Brief noch nicht empfangen haben; I might have slept an hour, when I awoke, ich mochte eine Stunde geschlafen haben, als ich erwachte.* —See also *Obs. 6.*

Obs. 6. The potential auxiliaries are frequently used in an impersonal sense without an impersonal form; as, "*he must* † be ill," means "*it must be that he is ill*," different from "*he must* † depart," which means "*he is obliged to depart*." If an auxiliary with such an impersonal import is joined with a past infinitive in English, the latter generally denotes completed action, and therefore the same construction is used in German; as, *He must* † *have departed* (i. e. *it must* † be that he has

* In old German the same construction was used as in English (see Grimm's *Grammatik*, vol. 4); and even now it is not quite out of use. Thus the last example but one might, according to Adelung (see *sollen* in his *Dictionary*), also be rendered, *Sie sollten mir das gestern gesagt haben*; yet the more general usage is as stated above. — See also *Obs. 6.*

† In all these examples the English *must* is in the present tense, and must be expressed by the same tense in German: but in such instances as the following it is an imperfect, and must be translated accordingly. *He must be mad, if he did it*; er müsste verrückt sein, wenn er es thäte; *I must have sold my house, if he had not lent me money*, ich hätte mein Haus verkaufen müssen, wenn er mir kein Geld geliehen hätte; *I knew he must be at home*, ich wußte, daß er zu Hause sein mußte. It is then from the context that the tense of *must* is known. *Ought* is always the imperfect subjunctive, being equivalent to *should*. Regarding the imperfects, *should* and *would*, see § 82, *Obs. 5.*

departed), er muß abgereiset seyn, different from er hat abreisen müssen, *he was obliged to depart*. Thus also, Sollte er es Ihnen nicht gesagt haben? means, *would he not have (i. e. can it be that he has not) told it you?* Hätte er es Ihnen nicht sagen sollen? denotes, *ought he not to have told it you?* Sie fürchtete er könnte sie verrathen haben, *she was afraid he might have (i. e. it might be, that he had) betrayed her*; Er hätte sie verrathen können, wenn er gewollt hätte, *he might have betrayed her if he had liked*. We may observe also that the compound tenses of these auxiliaries are never used in the impersonal sense noticed here, but the imperfect is not unfrequently used so: see the preceding examples. Thus also, Er mochte ungefähr dreißig Jahre alt seyn*, *he might have been* thirty years old*.

Obs. 7. Wollen joined with a past infinitive has several idiomatic significations, denoting 1.) The *intention* of the speaker with regard to what he has just said or done; as, Ich will ihn nicht geschimpft haben, *I did not intend (by what I said) to abuse him*; Ich will Ihnen das Buch geschenkt haben, *I wish you to accept (or, to consider) the book as a present*. 2.) An *indirect command*, as in English: Ich will nichts davon verrathen haben†, *I will have nothing betrayed of it*. In this sense wissen is often used, instead of haben: Er will die Sache abgethan wissen, *he wants to have (lit. to know) the affair settled*. 3.) *To allow, not disputing*: Ich will es gesagt haben, *I will allow, or grant, I have said so*. 4.) *Pretence*, which import however it may have also when joined with a present infinitive.—See p. 178.

Obs. 8. In conclusion we must notice the practice of often omitting haben and seyn, when they are auxiliaries of past tenses. This ellipsis, which is very common in poets, and not unusual even in prose, can take place only in subordinate and relative clauses,—that is, in such where the finite verb is placed at the end, in consequence of its being deprived of assertion (see § 89, *Obs. 3*, and § 108). Ich verlor nicht alles, da solcher Freund im Unglück mir geblieben (supply ist), *I did not lose everything, as such a friend is left me in my misfortune (Schiller)*; Nachdem er eine Stunde ausgeruhet (hatte) ging er wieder an die Arbeit, *after having rested an hour, he went to his work again*; Ein Mensch, der

* The difference of the idioms of the two languages with regard to the tenses of the infinitive in this and similar instances, arises perhaps from the English imperfect in such instances being used *subjunctively*, that is, in reference to present time, at which time the state expressed by the above infinitive is past, whilst the German imperfect *indicative* can refer only to past time, and is therefore contemporary with the infinitive.

† In this sense, haben is perhaps no auxiliary, but denotes *possession*, or *obtaining*; just as one says, Er will alles nach seinem Willen haben, *he wants to have (or, to carry) everything after his own will*: so that its conjunction with the participle forms no past infinitive in such instances.

so lange gelitten (hat), denkt immer, daß &c., *a man, who has suffered so long, always thinks that &c.*—See also § 132, *Obs.* 1.

USE OF THE MOODS.

§ 129. THE INDICATIVE is the chief mood employed in communicating our perceptions, and expressing our thoughts to others; and in this mood all direct affirmations and interrogations are expressed. It is however used also in many dependent clauses or indirect propositions (as will be seen from the following section), and even in hypothetical propositions when implying a possible case: see § 68, *Obs.* 1.

USE OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

§ 130. From the explanation of the two leading rules of the subjunctive, given § 68, it will be seen that in an objective proposition or clause, this mood implies uncertainty and absence of all affirmation, with regard to the speaker, respecting the truth of the allegation. Accordingly, such objective propositions as are set forth as undoubted facts require the verb to be in the indicative; as,

Sagen Sie ihm, daß ich mit ihm zufrieden bin, *tell him that I am satisfied with him*; Habe ich's nicht immer gesagt, daß er ein ehrlicher Mann ist? *did I not always say that he was an honest man?* Es ist gewiß, daß er sie heirathen wird, *it is certain that he will marry her.*

The subjunctive is therefore not used:

1.) In objective clauses depending on such verbs as, *wissen, to know*; *erfahren, to learn*; *sehen, to see*; *entdecken, to discover*; *überzeugen, to convince*; *erweisen, to prove*, and other verbs precluding the idea of uncertainty, unless they are themselves in the subjunctive, by which a degree of uncertainty may be imparted to the dependent verb. Thus we say, *Ich weiß, or, ich bin überzeugt, daß das nothwendig ist, I know, or, I am convinced, that this is necessary*; but we should say, *Wüßte ich, or, wäre ich überzeugt, daß das nothwendig sey, if I knew, or, were I convinced, that this was necessary.* We may however observe, that if the dependent verb represents an event as future to the leading verb, but as past at the moment of speaking, it is in the subjunctive, even when its leading verb implies no uncertainty; as, *Sie war damals schon überzeugt, daß er sein Wort nicht halten würde, she was then already convinced that he would not keep his promise.* 2.) With relative, or subordinate.

clauses (§ 108), expressive of a known fact, though the verb of the clause which they may restrict or modify be in the subjunctive; as, *Er sagt, er verspiele das Geld, welches sein Vater ihm schenkt, he says he gambles away the money which his father gives him*; *Man behauptet, er sey sehr arm, obschon er viel Geld verdient, it is asserted, that he is very poor, although he earns a great deal of money.* In these two examples, whilst the circumstances of his *gambling* and of his *being poor*, are given as objects of another's assertion, the *giving* and *earning* of money are, from their respective verbs being in the indicative, represented as known facts; the subjunctive (*schenke, verdiene*) would represent them equally as mere matter of another's assertion. However, when no ambiguity can arise, this rule is frequently violated, even by good authors: *Er hat mich versichert, daß er mehr Bücher gelesen hätte, als Stunden im Jahre wären* (for *sind*), *he assured me, he had read more books than there are hours in the year* (Gellert).

Obs. 1. Whilst usage is uniform with regard to conditional propositions, the principle laid down § 68 prevailing universally, it is far from being so with respect to objective clauses, in which indeed it is often optional to use the indicative or subjunctive. For the latter mood in such clauses generally carries with it a kind of guardedness on the side of the speaker, not to be answerable for the correctness of his information; which precaution may often be disregarded, or thought unnecessary and useless. Thus we may indifferently say, *Mein Freund schreibt mir, daß er bald abreisen wird, or, werde, my friend writes me that he will soon depart*; *Man glaubt, daß sie sehr reich ist, or, sey, it is thought that she is very rich.* In indirect questions, too, either mood may be used: *Frage ihn was er wolle, or, will, und wo er gewesen sey, or, ist, ask him what he wants, and where he has been.* On the other hand, the subjunctive mood is frequently used in speaking of our own former assertions, their truth or untruth being left out of view at the moment of narrating them; as, *Ich sagte ihm, daß noch nichts verloren wäre, daß noch niemand etwas davon wüßte, &c., I told him that as yet there was nothing lost, that nobody knew yet anything of it, &c.*; though the indicative must be used if such assertions are in the present tense: *Ich sage Ihnen, daß noch nichts verloren ist, &c.*

The subjunctive mood is further used:

- 1.) Optatively: for which see § 128 *Obs. 4.*
- 2.) Exhortatively or imperatively: see § 131.
- 3.) Potentially, but chiefly instead of the indicative of *mögen, may*, when implying a negation of influence on the action expressed by the other verb; as, *Laß niemanden herein, wer er auch sey (or, seyn mag), let nobody come in, whoever he may be*; *Man sage (or, mag sagen), was*

man will, es bleibt doch wahr, *one may say what one likes, it is nevertheless true*; Er sey böse oder nicht, ich werde es nicht thun, *let him be angry or not, I shall not do it*; Sie können das nicht erklären, so gelehrt Sie auch seyen, *you cannot explain that, however learned you may be*; so gelehrt Sie auch sind would mean, *learned as you are*. The imperfect mochte is not usually supplied in this way: Ich mochte sagen was ich wollte, er blieb unbewegt, *he remained unmoved, whatever I said*; Ich ging jeden Tag aus, es mochte regnen oder schneien, *I went out every day, whether it rained or snowed*.

4.) In relative clauses, referring to general negatives; as, Ich kenne niemanden, der gelehrter wäre als er, *I know none who is more learned than he*; Ich bin nie zu ihm gekommen, wo ich nicht Fremde bei ihm angetroffen hätte, *I never came to him without finding strangers with him*. Of the same description are subordinate clauses with daß in such propositions as, Wer ist so einfältig, daß er das nicht einsähe, *who is so simple as not to see that* (lit. *that he should not see that*); Er that es, ohne daß ich es hätte hindern können, *he did it without my being able to prevent it*. However, the corresponding indicative tense (§ 78) may likewise be used in such propositions.

5.) After the following conjunctions indicating, partly, contrariety to fact, and partly, contingency: als ob, or, als wenn, *as if*; als daß, *than* (before an infinitive); damit (or, daß, if equivalent), *in order that*; and denn or dann, in the sense of *unless*; as, Er spricht als wenn (or, als ob) er unser Herr wäre, *he speaks as though he were our master*; Sie haben ihn zu sehr beleidigt, als daß er Ihnen je vergeben würde, *you have offended him too much for him ever to pardon you*; Es sey denn, daß er es bereue, *unless (it be) that he repent it*; Thue es, damit er sehe*, daß du sein Freund bist, *do it, that he may see* that you are his friend*.

6.) To soften an assertion, either from modesty or hesitation, implying a distrust in our own judgement or perception, or in the propriety of what we say. It is however only the imperfect, not the present tense of this mood, which is used with this import; as, Was andere daran loben, wäre ich sehr geneigt zu tadeln, *what others praise in it, I should be much inclined to blame*; Ich dachte, wir könnten das morgen thun, *I should think we could do that tomorrow*; Ich wünschte, Sie ließen mich in Ruhe, *I could wish you would leave me in peace*; Das hat der Zufall gut getroffen, und mein Gefangner wärst denn du (Goethe), *that is a lucky chance, and thou art then* (it would seem†) *my*

* Implying however a possibility that it will not have that effect; but if the result is certain, we should rather use the indicative, damit er sieht.

† In propositions, too, expressing an end or aim just obtained or arrived at, we often use the subjunctive, and perhaps with a similar import, as if implying a wish to have it confirmed; as, Den wären wir so, *him* (I think) *we have*

prisoner. Thus also in requesting a favour: as, *Wären Sie wohl so gütig, mir das zu erklären?* *would you be so kind as to explain this to me?* *Dürfte ich Sie bitten, mir das zu zeigen?* *might I beg you to show me that?* This softening subjunctive is in frequent use with the auxiliaries *dürfen*, *mögen*, and *können*, with which it generally implies a greater degree of contingency, which may be expressed in English by *possibly*, or, *not unlikely*; as, *Sie dürften* (or, *möchten*) *einst wohl Ursache haben dieses zu bereuen*, *possibly you may one day have reason to repent this*; *Nehmen Sie einen Regenschirm mit, es könnte regnen*, *take an umbrella with you, it may perhaps rain*; *So etwas möchte sich wohl nie ereignen*, *such a thing may perhaps never happen*.

Obs. 2. In many instances the use of the subjunctive arises from the ellipsis of a conditional clause, or of a leading verb; as, *Wer hätte das geglaubt!* *who would have believed this!* (supply "if he had not seen it"); *Sie sollten das thun*, *you ought to do that*, viz. if you would look to propriety, or to your advantage; *Er wäre so etwas fähig!* *could he be capable of such a thing!* referring to what had just been said, or to the appearance of the case. Thus also in Schiller's *Maria Stuart*, Kennedy says, *Gastfreundlich hätte England sie empfangen!* *hospitably* (you say) *England has received her!* alluding to what Paulet had just before said.

USE OF THE IMPERATIVE.

§ 131. The use of this mood being nearly the same as in English, we have to notice the following rules only:

1. When addressing any one in the third person instead of the second (see § 59, *Obs. 2*), the nominative can never be omitted; as, *sprechen Sie* (*spreche Er*, or *Sie*—see p. 154), *speak*: but when we address in the second person the nominative *du*, or *ihr*, is omitted, unless it be emphatic, just as in English; as, *sprich*, *speak* (thou); *sprechet*, *speak* (ye); *Gehe hin und thue dergleichen*, *go and do likewise*. But we say, *Sei du ruhig*, *be you quiet*; *Schweig du und laß ihn reden*, *be you silent and let him speak*; the pronoun having the verbal emphasis.

2. The imperative of the third person, i. e. of a subject not addressed personally, is borrowed from the subjunctive: *Man schweige**, *let them*

got rid of; Das wäre gethan, this is then done (it seems); *Hier wären wir also, here we are then* (at last, I think).

* The analogy between the subjunctive, imperative, and the future, which has often been noticed in other languages, exists, as will be perceived, also in German. Hence *sollen*, *shall*, is employed as an auxiliary both of the future tense and of the imperative mood,—see the next rule. Compare also note (*), page 328.

be silent; Niemand antworte ihm, *let no one answer him*. See also note (†) p. 154.

3. As in English, the imperative may be expressed also paraphrastically by means of auxiliaries; as, *Laßt* (or *laß*, if addressing a single person) *uns gehen*, *let us go*; *Sie sollen mich begleiten*, *you shall accompany me*. See also *sollen* in § 82. *Wollen* and *mögen* are sometimes used in this mood to render a request more respectful; as, *Wenn ich Unrecht that, so wollen* (or *mögen*) *Sie es gütigst verzeihen*, *If I did wrong, you will kindly pardon it*. As in other languages, the future is often used imperatively; as, *Sie werden mich hier erwarten*, *you will expect me here*.

Obs. 1. Regarding the passive imperative we observe as follows: 1.) The imperative of *lassen* with an infinitive is often employed as a passive imperative denoting a request to submit to an action; as, *Gehe und laß dich anfeiden*, *go and be, or get, dressed*; *Lassen Sie sich raten*, *be advised* (compare § 82, *Obs. 2*). 2.) The imperative of *seyn* with the participle past of another verb is often used optatively, to express as a wish the effect of an action intended by us; as, *Seyn Sie versichert*, *be assured* (i. e. *I assure you*); *Seyd gegrüßt*, *I salute you* (literally, *be greeted*); *Dafür seyd liebevoll umfassen*, *for that let me embrace you* (lit. *be embraced affectionately* (Schiller)). Analogous are such expressions as, *Gott sey gelobt!* *God be praised!* *Es sey dir verziehen*, *I pardon you*. Such combinations with *seyn*, according to the nature of this auxiliary (§ 79), refer rather to the state resulting from the action, than to the actual performance of it, and cannot therefore be considered as the exact counterpart of the imperative of the active voice. This can be expressed only by the auxiliary *werden*, as exhibited in the table, p. 166. It must however be allowed, that the imperative with *werden* is little in use. 3.) This imperative must not be confounded with the past participle used imperatively, which is always employed in an active sense, and therefore often joined with an accusative (see § 93, *Obs. 2*). We may further observe, that this participle cannot be joined as an active imperative with any auxiliary; and the English expressions “have done!” “be gone!” which form a kind of aorist imperative, must be rendered into German by an equivalent; such as, *höre auf!* or, *wirst du aufhören?* *gehe weg!*

Obs. 2. A kind of imperative is also sometimes used with the first person singular, implying a final resolution after some hesitation: *Geb ich die Sache nur auf*, *let me* (or, *I will*) *give up the affair*; *Gesieh ich's nur*, *let me* (*I see I must*) *confess it* (Goethe).

USE OF THE INFINITIVE.

§ 132. The infinitive is used with, or without, the particle *zu*, *to*,—

1st. *Without* the particle *zu*, in the following cases:—

1.) When not dependent on any other word, viz. when used either as the mere name of the action or state, or as the nominative to a verb; as,

Das nennt er artig seyn, that is what he calls being polite; Seyn, oder nicht seyn, das ist die Frage, To be, or not to be, that is the question (see also note (*), p. 154); *Alle Menschen gleich lieben, ist unmöglich, to love all men equally, is impossible; Auf einem Strome segeln, ist angenehm, to sail on a river, is pleasant.* However, in the latter capacity, viz. as the nominative to a verb, the infinitive is frequently preceded by *zu*, and more especially so when the proposition is not general, but refers to some particular case; as, *Alle Menschen gleich zu lieben, wäre mir unmöglich, to love all men equally, would be impossible for me; Jetzt auf einem Strome zu segeln, wäre gefährlich, to sail now on a river would be dangerous.*

2.) After the auxiliaries of the potential mood (§ 81), and after those verbs mentioned in § 81, *Obs. 2*; the corresponding English verbs to which are, for the most part, likewise followed by the infinitive without the particle *to*.

To these may be added, *a.*) The infinitive governed by *machen*, *to make*, but chiefly in some particular expressions: *einen lachen machen, to make one laugh; die Uhr gehen machen, to set the watch a-going; and in a few other instances.* *b.*) Infinitives depending on the verbs, *finden, to find; haben, to have; fühlen, to feel; and bleiben, to remain; when expressive of a position, situation, or condition* (see *Obs. 1*); as, *Er blieb liegen, sitzen, &c., he remained lying, sitting, &c.; Ich fühle seinen Puls schlagen, I feel his pulse beating; Er hat viele Schafe auf die Weide gehen, he has many sheep at (lit. going to) pasture; Wir fanden ihn unter einem Baume sitzen (stehen, or liegen), we found him sitting (standing, or lying) under a tree.* *c.*) The idiomatic expressions, *betteln gehen, to go a begging; schlafen gehen, to go to bed; spazieren gehen, fahren, or reiten, to take a walk, a drive, or a ride; Er thut nichts als schwagen, lachen, &c., he does nothing but talk, laugh, &c.; Hier ist gut wohnen, gut leben, &c., it is good dwelling, good living, here, &c.; Du hast gut reden, it is easy for you to talk.*

Obs. 1. It will be seen that most of the English verbs corresponding with those belonging to the preceding rule are followed either by an

infinitive without the particle *to*, or by a participle present. Simultaneousness of the action of the leading verb with that of the infinitive seems to be the principle of the constructions referable to this rule. Hence, when the infinitive relates to a time subsequent to that of the leading verb, it is either preceded by *zu*, or its place supplied by a finite verb with *daß*; as, *Die Religion lehrt uns unsern Feinden zu verzeihen*, *Religion teaches (bids) us to pardon our enemies*; *Von der Macht, die Mitleiden mit uns hat, sollten wir lernen, es auch gegen andere zu haben*, *from that Power that pities us, we ought to learn to pity others*; *Ich höre, daß er zurück kommen wird*, *I hear that he will come back*. If an infinitive dependent on *haben* is preceded by *zu*, *haben* denotes, as in similar constructions in English, a right, or an obligation*; as, *Sie haben hier zu befehlen*, *you have to command here*; *Ich habe noch etwas zu thun*, *I have yet something to do*. This construction has some analogy with that of the infinitive governed by *seyn* (§ 91, *Obs.* 3), both of them implying expectation, or intention. It is also not unworthy of notice, that, like the participle past of transitive verbs, the infinitive in these constructions has an active or passive sense, according as it is joined with *haben* or *seyn*.—Compare the above examples with those given at p. 215.

Obs. 2. As most of the verbs belonging to this rule often have in the compound past tenses the infinitive instead of the past participle (see § 81, *Obs.* 2), it sometimes happens that three infinitives follow each other in the same clause without any particle; as, *Ich hätte sie singen hören mögen* (for *gemocht*), *I should have liked to hear her sing*. See also in the quoted *Obs.* the example, *Er würde für einen Meister, &c.* In other tenses, too, the same succession of three infinitives is possible; as, *Ich will sie singen lehren lassen*, *I will have her taught singing*. However, this accumulation of infinitives ought, according to grammarians, to be avoided. When two such infinitives occur without any governing verb, the last infinitive stands for the past participle, and the governing verb is the auxiliary *haben*, omitted according to § 128, *Obs.* 8; as, *Ein Bär der lange Zeit sein Brod (supply hatte) ertanzen müssen* (for *gemußt*), *a bear that for a long time had been obliged to dance for his bread (Gellert)*.

2nd. *With* the particle *zu*, when depending on any other verb than those just mentioned, or on any substantive, adjective, or preposition; as,

* It may perhaps interest the curious student to observe, that in analogy with the English *shall*, this auxiliary, from its import of obligation, has given rise to the French future tense; it having been proved beyond a doubt that the inflections of that tense in French are nothing but the present tense of *avoir*: *je parler-ai, tu parler-as, &c.* Ulphilas (see p. 1) also uses the Gothic *haban* as an auxiliary of the future tense.

Ich bat ihn zu schweigen, *I begged him to be silent*; Sie giebt vor ihn gesehen zu haben, *she pretends to have seen him*; Er verlangt eingelassen zu werden, *he demands to be admitted*; Bestrebe dich das zu seyn, was du zu scheinen wünschest, *endeavour to be what you wish to appear*; die Kunst zu gefallen, *the art of pleasing*; bereit alles zu wagen, *ready to venture anything*; Anstatt zu arbeiten, schläft er, *instead of working, he sleeps*; Er ging weg, ohne ein Wort zu sagen, *he went away without saying a word*.

Obs. 3. The subject of the action or state expressed by the infinitive, is always omitted in German, and therefore the verb of a dependent clause can be used in the infinitive mood, only when its subject is one and the same individual, either as the nominative, or objective case, of the leading verb. Thus the two first examples of the preceding rule are respectively equivalent to "I begged *him* that *he* would be silent," "She pretends that *she* had seen him." In the first sentence *him* and *he* refer to the same persons, in the second *she* is the nominative to both verbs. In English, however, the verb of a dependent clause is sometimes put in the infinitive when its nominative, not being referred to by any word of the leading proposition, cannot be omitted, which is therefore turned into the accusative as the regimen of the leading verb. Thus, for "I believe that *he* is my friend," one may say "I believe *him* to be my friend." This construction (so well known in the Latin grammar under the term of "the accusative with the infinitive") is not admissible in German, and we can use only the finite verb with *daß*: Ich glaube, daß er mein Freund ist. Of the same description are such propositions as, "He wanted (desired, ordered, wished, or expected) the breakfast to be ready at nine o'clock;" "I will allow (admit, or prove) him to be a clever man;" "I suppose (think, or know) him to be your friend:" in all which instances the infinitive must be rendered in German by a finite verb, and the accusative turned into the nominative.

There are, however, many verbs in both languages which do not admit their dependent verb to be in the infinitive, even when its nominative is the same with their own subject; which usage is best learned from practice. Upon the whole it will be found that the English and German do not differ much in this respect; and in case of uncertainty it is always safest to use the finite verb with *daß*. We subjoin, however, a few rules which may assist the learner.

The infinitive may generally be joined with verbs implying, 1.) The *inducement* to do or not to do the action it denotes; as, *befehlen, to command*; *bitten, to beg*; *drohen, to threaten*; *rathe, to advise*; *versprechen, to promise*; *warnen, to warn*; *verbieten, to forbid*; *fürchten, to be afraid*; *abrathen, to dissuade, &c.* 2.) The *source or ground* of any statement, and at the same time a doubt or suspense

of judgment with regard to the truth of what is expressed by the dependent verb; as, *scheinen, to appear*; *glauben, to believe*; *sich eintilden, to fancy*; *sich schmeicheln, to flatter oneself*; *hoffen, to hope*; *schwören, to swear*; *läugnen, to deny*; *beschuldigen, to accuse, &c.* But verbs denoting the mere statement of a fact without any implication of doubt, and those implying knowledge, or perception,—such as, *sagen, to say*; *erzählen, to relate*; *melden, to mention*; *verkündigen, to promulgate*; *anzeigen, to announce*; *mittheilen, to communicate*; *wissen, to know, to be aware of* (in the sense of *to understand how to manage*, it governs an infinitive); *einsehen, to perceive, &c.*—are seldom joined with the infinitive. 3.) The effect on our feelings caused by the state or action expressed by the dependent verb; as, *sich freuen, to rejoice*; *bereuen, to repent*; *sich grämen, to grieve*; *es ist mir lieb, leid, &c., I am glad, sorry, &c.*

Obs. 4. We have to notice here some peculiar offices of this mood.

1.) It sometimes indicates the final cause of the leading proposition, and is then generally (but not always) preceded by *um, for*; as, *Er that dieses nur, um mir zu schaden, he did this only in order (lit. for) to injure me*; *Man lebt nicht um zu essen, sondern man ist um zu leben, one does not live in order to eat, but one eats in order to live*; *Die Bibel ließ man ihr, das Herz zu bessern, the bible was left her to improve her heart.* When a correlative to the particle *zu*, or *genug*, in the leading proposition, *um* with the infinitive determines the degree of intensity; as, *Ich bin nicht alt genug, um das zu verstehen, I am not old enough to understand this*; *Er ist zu klug, um das zu glauben, he is too sensible to believe that.* 2.) As in English, the infinitive is often used independently of any other word; as, *Die Wahrheit zu sagen, ich hatte kein Geld bei mir, to tell the truth, I had no money with me.* 3.) English hypothetical infinitives must be expressed in German by *wenn* with a finite verb; as, *To look at him, one would think, &c., wenn man ihn ansieht, sollte man denken, &c.* 4.) The English *as*, used before an infinitive as the correlative of *so*, or *such*, in the principal proposition, remains untranslated in German; as, *Be so good as to give me that book, seyn Sie so gütig, mir das Buch zu geben*; *I am not so simple as to believe such a thing, ich bin nicht so einfältig, so etwas zu glauben.* If these particles (*so*, and *such*) have the verbal emphasis, implying an unusual degree of intensity, the following infinitive must in German be rendered by the finite verb with *daß*; as, *She was so enraged (or, in such a rage) as to be unable to speak, sie war so wüthend (or, in einer solchen Wuth), daß sie nicht sprechen konnte.*

Obs. 5. We conclude with the following remarks:—1.) When the English verbal *in ing* is used as a substantive (in its participial or adjective character, it will be considered in the next Section), it is mostly rendered in German by the infinitive, or by its equivalent (*i. e.* the finite

verb with daß), if the infinitive be inadmissible (see *Obs.* 3); as, *The pleasure of seeing you*, das Vergnügen Sie zu sehen; *Capable of doing it*, fähig es zu thun; *I shall not fail of coming*, ich werde nicht erman-
 geln zu kommen (see also the examples of the 2nd Rule); *The news of the peace being signed*, die Nachricht, daß der Friede unterzeichnet sey; *When he heard of her learning Greek*, als er erfuhr, daß sie Griechisch lernte; *His rising so late surprised us*, daß er so spät aufstand befremdete uns. 2.) If the English verbal in *ing* be preceded by a preposition, the corresponding preposition in German is compounded with da (compare § 64, *Obs.* 4); as, *He takes pleasure in teasing the children*, er findet Vergnügen daran, die Kinder zu necken; *Depend upon my bringing the money tomorrow*, verlassen Sie sich darauf, daß ich morgen das Geld bringe; *She felt herself offended by your coming so late*, sie fühlte sich dadurch beleidigt, daß Sie so spät kamen. 3.) As in English and other languages, the infinitive in German governs the same cases as its verb; as may be seen from several of the above examples. However when it is used substantively (§ 91), the object of the action cannot be in the accusative, but is put in the genitive; as, das Zählen des Geldes, *the counting of the money*; das Erziehen der Kinder, *the educating of children*.

USE OF THE PARTICIPLES.

§. 133. The two participles, which we have noticed in §§ 92 and 93 as concrete adjectives, are employed in their participial character to supply the place of the verb and its connective, in clauses beginning with a relative, or with one of the conjunctions *indem*, *whilst*; *als*, *as*, or *when*; *da*, *since*; and *wenn*, *when*; as,

Der Greis, zitternd vor Kälte, und von Hunger erschöpft, erbarmte uns, *the old man trembling (i. e. who trembled) with cold, and (who was) exhausted from hunger, excited our pity*; Den Brief unterzeichnend sagte er, &c., *signing (i. e. whilst, or when, he signed) the letter, he said, &c.*; Vom Unglück getroffen, verzagt sie; aber vom Glück angelächelt, ist sie übermüthig, (when) *afflicted by misfortune she is desponding, but (when) smiled upon by fortune she is overbearing*.

Obs. 1. This construction, so extensively employed and so readily used even in colloquial language in English, is in German far more limited; being, generally, confined rather to serious and elevated language, and entirely inadmissible in some particular cases where in English it is freely used; as may be seen from the following remarks.

Respecting the use of this construction we may remark as follows :—

1.) The participle of the dependent clause must refer to the subject of the leading verb.—See the above examples. However, when no ambiguity can arise, it is used sometimes also in reference to the accusative of the leading verb, especially in poetry: *An eurer Seite fechtend* (ließ ich sie (*Schiller*), *I left her fighting at your side* (i. e. whilst she was fighting). As a concrete adjective, however, the participle may, of course, refer to any substantive; its inflection and place (before its substantive) precluding all ambiguity: *Was ich dem mir drohenden Manne versagte, gewähre ich gerne dem bescheiden bittenden (Manne),* *what I refused to the man threatening me, I willingly grant him (when) modestly begging.*

2.) The subject of the participle is always understood, as in the above examples; and therefore the nominative absolute, as it is termed in the English grammar, is inadmissible in German, and must be expressed by circumlocution. Thus, for instance, “my father expecting me, I cannot go with you,” must be rendered by “as my father expects me, I cannot, &c.,” *Da mich mein Vater erwartet, &c.*

3.) The auxiliary verbs are, as such, never used in the present participle, that is, their present participle is never joined—not even as a concrete adjective*—either with the past participle (see § 68, *Obs.* 2), or with the infinitive* of another verb: and such expressions as, “Having finished my letter, I copied it,” “Being presented to her, he said,” &c., must be rendered by a conjunctive clause: *Nachdem ich meinen Brief geendigt hatte, schrieb ich ihn ab; Als er ihr vorgestellt wurde, sagte er, &c.*

4.) If a relative clause is restrictive, pointing out an individual, class, or species, it cannot be rendered by this construction; as, *Menschen, welche mäßig leben* (or, *mäßig lebende Menschen, but not Menschen mäßig lebend*), *sind selten krank, people living moderately are rarely ill.*

Obs. 2. The present participle governs the same case as the verb in the active sense; as, *Ihm den Brief übergebend, sagte er, &c., delivering him the letter, he said, &c.* The past participle cannot be used in this construction, unless the verb *seyn, to be*, be understood (compare §§ 79 and 93), and therefore with transitive verbs it can be used so in a passive sense only, and construed in the same manner as the verb in the passive voice (§ 126): *Von dem Redner des Hochverraths angeklagt, vertheidigte er sich, &c., accused by the orator of high treason, he defended himself, &c.* In some instances the past participle has been supposed to have an active import, the auxiliary *haben* being understood; as, *Den*

* Such expressions as, *die Pythagorisch seyn sollenden Thorheiten, the follies intended to pass for Pythagorean (Wieland),* are uncommon.

Blick den Wolken zugekehrt, verläßt er bald der Räder sichere Spur, (having) *his looks directed towards the clouds, he (Pegasus) soon forsakes the safe track of the wheels* (Schiller). But, as may be supposed from the English translation, such instances are more naturally explained by considering the participle to be used in a passive sense, as an adjective referring to the accusative, both depending on the omitted verb *haben* in the character, not of an auxiliary, but of a principal verb*. As such, indeed, *haben* is also frequently omitted before substantives unconnected with any participle; for instance, in the following passage in Goethe's *Faust*: Ich eile fort ihr ewiges Licht zu trinken, vor mir den Tag, und hinter mir die Nacht, den Himmel über mir, und unter mir die Wellen, *I hasten on, to drink his (the sun's) eternal light, (having) the day before me, and the night behind me, the sky above, and the waves below, me.*—See also the end of § 125.

Obs. 3. As in English, the past participle, like the absolute infinitive (§132, *Obs. 4*), is often used independently of any noun, and as modifying, with its adjunct, the *whole* proposition; as, Zugegeben (or, gesetzt) daß er es wußte, wie konnte er es verhindern? *granted (or, suppose) that he knew it, how could he prevent it?* Diesen Fall ausgenommen, ist nichts zu befürchten, *this case excepted, there is nothing to fear*; dieses voraus gesetzt, *this taken as granted*; unter uns gesagt, *between ourselves*; aufrichtig gestanden, *candidly confessing*; streng genommen, *taking it strictly, &c.* It will be perceived from these examples, that in this construction the German past participle is used in an active sense, and may therefore govern an accusative; and that it sometimes answers to the English participle in *ing*.

ARRANGEMENT OF WORDS IN A SENTENCE.

§ 134. In an independent sentence, the *natural* or *logical* order of words is as follows: the subject, the finite verb, the dative, and accusative governed by the verb (if however the latter be a personal pronoun, it precedes the dative), the adverb, the genitive, and last, the prepositional phrases immediately connected with the verb—chiefly such as note its direction, or aim; as,

Er schrieb ihr einen Brief, or, einen Brief an sie, *he wrote her a letter, or, a letter to her*; Sie beschuldigte ihn der Treulosigkeit, *she accused him of perfidy*; Ich schickte meinen Sohn in die Schule, *I sent my son to*

* Just as one may say, "He had a dagger *concealed* under his cloak," where *concealed* is an adjective, and not the component part of a past tense. Compare also note (+), p. 333.

school; Ich empfahl Sie ihm, *I recommended you to him*; Er betrug sich sehr edel gegen mich, *he behaved very nobly towards me*.

So far the two languages agree in their arrangement; but in the position of the predicate or of words belonging immediately to the verb, they differ widely. In German, such words are placed after all the dependents of the verb; in English, before them, *i. e.* immediately after the finite verb. Even the order of the constituent parts of the predicate is reversed in the two languages—the past participles and the infinitive of the compound tenses being, in German, preceded by the component parts of the verb (§ 89), or by adjectives belonging to the predicate, whilst in English they are followed by these words. (Compare § 89, *Obs.* 3.) We subjoin some examples:—

Er würde seinen besten Freund heraus gefodert haben (not, haben heraus gefodert, see note (*), p. 161), *he would have called out his best friend*; Er wird seinen Freunden treu bleiben, *he will remain faithful to his friends*; Ich bin dieses Geschäftes beinahe müde, *I am almost tired of this business*. See also the examples at p. 205, seq.

Obs. 1. In the preceding arrangement, as well as in the following rules, it is supposed that each part of the proposition has its current or *usual* relative degree of emphasis. But, from special reasons, a word may often attract some particular attention, and become more emphatic than usual; in which case, generally, inversions take place, and words are removed from their usual position, either to the beginning of the sentence (see § 135), or more towards the end of it. Hence, we frequently find in such cases not only the dative after the accusative—as, Ich gab den Ring endlich seinem Bruder, *I gave the ring at last to his brother*—but sometimes even words depending on the predicate, or on a non-assertive verb, following the word on which they depend, in order to attract more of our attention; as, Er ist mit ihr vereinigt durch unauflösliche Bande (instead of the more common order, durch unauflösliche Bande vereinigt), *he is united to her by indissoluble ties*; Ich kann nicht länger schweigen zu solchen unerhörten Missethaten, *I can no longer be silent at such unheard-of misdeeds*. See also the third example of the following second Rule.—A prepositional phrase dependent on an adjective very frequently follows it; as, Sie ist sehr böse auf Sie, *she is very angry with you*; Ich bin zufrieden mit dieser Arbeit, *I am satisfied with this work*.

We subjoin a few rules respecting particular parts of a sentence :

1. The substantive is preceded, as in English, by the article and other definitives, and by its adjective, in the order noticed in § 89, *Obs.* 3; as, diese drei schönen Häuser, jedes mit zwanzig vortrefflichen Zimmern, *these three beautiful houses, each with twenty excellent rooms*; alle unsere guten Freunde, *all our good friends*; der erste schöne Tag dieser Woche, *the first fine day of this week*; eine ganze halbe Stunde, *a full half hour*. The position of selbst, welcher, was für ein, so, solch, genug and all, has been noticed in §§ 60, 65 and 66.

2. An adjective having *several* words depending on it, may, contrary to the English idiom, still follow the general rule, and, preceded by its own dependents, take its place before the substantive it qualifies; as, dieser unglückliche, eines bessern Schicksals würdige Mann, *this unfortunate man, worthy of a better fate*; ein sechs Fuß tiefer, und zehn Fuß breiter Graben, *a ditch six feet deep, and ten feet wide**. See also the examples in § 51, *Obs.* 7. Such adjectives, however, thus encumbered with dependents may also follow their substantives, as in English; and we may say, dieser unglückliche Mann, würdig eines bessern Schicksals; ein Graben, sechs Fuß tief, und zehn Fuß breit. As in English, this construction may be used also with adjectives unencumbered by dependents, when there are several belonging to the same substantive; as, ein Mann, groß, reich, und gelehrt, *a man, great, rich, and learned*.

Obs. 2. Poets sometimes put even the concrete adjective after its substantive; as, Sage mir, Muse, vom Manne dem vielgewandten (for, von dem vielgewandten Manne), *tell me, Muse, of the man, the much-experienced (man)*. Another poetical licence we may notice here, viz. an interposition of words between the genitive and the noun governing it; as, Was soll der Inhalt seyn des neuen Bundes? (for, Was soll der Inhalt des neuen Bundes seyn?) *what is the substance of the new league to be?* (*Schiller*). Other unusual transpositions sometimes occur in poetry,

* The following example has been adduced in a German publication as "hard:" Dieser von seinen Unterthanen treulos verlassene, mit dem Hasse seiner Verwandten beladene, aus den Gränzen seines Reiches gleich einem Uebelthäter verbannte, unter fremdem rauhem Himmel umherirrende, Fürst. To translate this and similar instances, which, it must be allowed, are tiring to the attention, the learner must first take the definitive (here, dieser), then the substantive belonging to it (Fürst), then the several adjectives with their respective dependents preceding them (verlassen von, ... beladen mit, ... verbannt aus, ... umherirrend unter); the literal translation will then run thus: *This prince, perfidiously forsaken by his subjects, burdened with the hatred of his relatives, banished like a criminal from the limits of his empire, wandering about in a foreign, ungenial, climate*. It would have wanted little change to render the preceding arrangement more clear. —Compare the end of § 135.

which, however, generally, will be easily understood by the English reader.

3. The finite verb, as has already been explained, is thrown to the end of its clause, when divested of assertion (see p. 207 and § 108, *Obs.* 2), *i. e.* when depending on any of the subordinative conjunctions* (see the list and examples, page 259), or on a relative pronoun (see the examples in § 65), or on a relative adverb (see § 65, *Obs.* 5). This is the case also in all indirect questions,—that is to say, a verb used interrogatively, depending on a preceding verb or noun, is thrown to the end, being devoid of assertion; as, *Frage ihn, Wann er zurück gekommen ist? und, Warum er nicht geschrieben hat? ask him, When he returned? and, Why he did not write? Sage mir, wo du den ganzen Winter über warst, tell me where you were during all the winter; die Frage, Wer ihm das gesagt habe? the question, Who has told him that? All clauses in which the finite verb is not assertive, may be denominated dependent clauses. With respect to the assertive verb or the finite verb of an independent sentence, see § 135, *Obs.* 1.*

4. The infinitive follows its dependents; and if the infinitive itself is dependent, it generally follows the word on which it depends (see the examples in § 132), except when depending on one of those verbs that govern the infinitive without *zu* (see the first rule of § 132), in which case it precedes its governing verb, if the latter is not assertive, *i. e.* is itself in the infinitive, or belongs to a dependent clause; as, *Ich werde warten müssen* (not, *müssen warten*), *I shall be obliged to wait*; *Als er mich gehen ließ, when he allowed me to go*: though in the equivalent sentences, *Ich werde genöthigt seyn zu warten*; *Als er mir erlaubte zu gehen*, the infinitive, being preceded by *zu*, mostly follows its governing verb. The same order is observed when the infinitive stands for the past participle: *Wenn ich ihn hätte länger warten lassen, if I had allowed him to wait longer*. See also the examples in § 81, *Obs.* 2. We may observe on this occasion, that in dependent clauses the finite verb does not follow the two infinitives just noticed, but generally precedes the last, or both of them, as in the last example.

Obs. 3. When the infinitive, or a clause beginning with *daß*, or a relative clause, depends on a word nearly at the end of a preceding sentence, it is frequently separated from its governing word by the sentence being finished before the dependent member commences; as, *Wenn Sie mir den Befehl gegeben hätten, Ihnen das Pferd zu kaufen* (or, *daß ich Ihnen das Pferd kaufen sollte*), *if you had given me the order to buy* (or,

* In such sentences as, *Er sagte, daß, wenn ich ihn eingeladen hätte, er gewiß gekommen wäre, he said that, if I had invited him, he would certainly have come*, the learner will observe that the second clause has its verb (*wäre*) at the end, from its being dependent on the conjunction *daß*.

that I should buy) you the horse; Da Sie die Gemälde zu sehen wünschen, die ich in Italien gekauft habe, *as you wish to see the pictures which I have bought in Italy*. The dependent clauses might in these examples have been inserted immediately after the words on which they respectively depend (Befehl and Gemälde); but not so well in the following, where it wanted but one particle (ein) to finish the principal sentence, and where the relative clause is long: Ich packe eben die Sachen ein, die ich meinem Bruder diese Woche mit dem Eilwagen schicken will, *I am just packing up the things which I intend sending to my brother this week by the diligence*.

5. Adverbs must precede, as in English, the adverb or adjective which they modify; as, gewiß nicht, *certainly not*; nicht gewiß, *not certain*; ganz recht, *quite right*; ein recht guter Mann, *a very good man*; Er will es nicht wieder thun, *he will not do it again*; Er will es wieder nicht thun, *he again will not do it*. Several adverbs, however, mostly of a restrictive, or adversative, nature,—such as, nur, or bloß, *only*; besonders, *particularly*; wenigstens, *at least*; erst, (it is, or, was) *but*; hingegen, *on the other hand*; sogar, *even*; and some others,—may precede or follow the word they refer to; as, nur er, or, er nur, *he only*; erst gestern, or, gestern erst, (it was) *but yesterday* (see also the examples, p. 228). Allein, *only*, or *alone*, always follows the word it restricts: Alle flohen, er allein blieb, *all fled, he only (or, alone) remained*. As a conjunction, it is at the beginning of its clause; though its equivalent, aber, may be placed indiscriminately at the beginning or after the verb. Thus, in the first example of § 109, *Obs. 3*, we might equally say, Er hat aber keine Erfahrung, or, Aber er hat, &c.

The adverb modifying the predicate generally precedes it immediately if the latter be expressed by separate words (see note (†), p. 207), otherwise the adverb is placed at the end of the sentence; as, Er hat meinen Bruder gütig aufgenommen, und ihn äußerst freundlich behandelt, *he has received my brother kindly, and has treated him uncommonly friendly*; Ich werde heute Abend nicht zu Hause seyn, *I shall not be at home this evening*; Sie schrieb den Brief nicht, *she did not write the letter*.

6. Prepositional phrases implying the direction, or the object, of an action, being closely connected with the verb, are generally preceded by the adverb referring to the verb; as, Lauf geschwind auf die Post, *run quickly to the post-office*; Er wird oft daran denken, *he will often think of it*; Wir sind sehr um sie besümmert, *we are much concerned about her*. Prepositional phrases denoting the scene, time, or other circumstances, are less fixed in their relative position; which is much the same as in English. They, however, generally precede the objective case, if the latter be an indefinite object; otherwise they more frequently follow it. Thus, we commonly say, Ich habe in jenem Laden ein Paar Handschuhe gekauft, *I bought a pair of gloves in that shop*;

and, Ich habe die Handschuhe (*the gloves*) in jenem Laden gekauft; Er hat vor drei Tagen einen Brief erhalten, *he received a letter three days ago*; and, Er hat jenen Brief (*that letter*) vor drei Tagen erhalten. Compare *Obs.* 1.

§ 135. *The inverted order.* If an independent sentence begin with any other part than its subject, the latter must be placed after its finite verb* (see, however, § 108, *Obs.* 2). This inversion, from which the arrangement is called the *inverted order* of words, does not however affect the relative position of any other part of the sentence, which remains just the same as in the natural order explained in the preceding section. We subjoin some examples:

Groß ist die Diana der Epheßer, *Great is Diana of the Ephesians*; Silber und Gold habe ich nicht, *Silver and gold have I none*; Heute wird er gewiß nicht kommen, *today he will certainly not come*; Beten kann ich nicht, *pray I cannot*; Auf rauschte † die Welle, *up rushed the wave*. Thus also, if a dependent clause begin the sentence (see p. 259); as, Wenn ich Zeit hätte, wollte ich es thun, *if I had time I would do it*. See also the examples, p. 260 ‡.

Obs. 1. In explanation of the natural as well as of the inverted order of words, we must observe that the position of the finite verb in an independent sentence, is unalterably fixed, and, with a few exceptions noticed in *Obs.* 4, it invariably occupies the second place of the sentence. But what word is to form the first part, is entirely optional, depending merely on what idea, from its importance, or association, comes foremost to the mind of the speaker. Not only the subject therefore may begin the sentence (§ 134), but also any part dependent on the verb, as, the predicate, an oblique case, an adverb, or circumstance, an infinitive, &c., or even a dependent clause. But as the verb must fill the second place, suffering *only one* part of the sentence to precede it, it is plain, 1.) That if this first

* So deeply is this transposition rooted in the genius of the language, that it is invariably observed even by the most illiterate people. It is also worthy of notice, that not only the Dutch, which has much the same order of words as the German, but also the Scandinavian languages, which differ in many material points from the German in the order of words, observe the same transposition of the nominative when it does not begin the sentence. In English, too, it is of frequent occurrence, especially if the nominative be an important noun.

† The particle should never be joined with the verb as one word when it precedes it by inversion; though it often occurs so in print.

‡ When we meet with sentences beginning with *wenn* in which no inversion takes place—as, Wenn ich ihn verlieren sollte, ich könnte (for *könnte ich*) nie wieder froh werden, *if I were to lose him, I could never be happy again*—we may consider the clause expressive of the consequence as an after-thought, as not having been plainly conceived in the mind till after the conditional clause was finished.

part is not the subject, the latter must be put after the verb, and such collocations as, "there he comes," "yesterday we met him," "with this money I am satisfied," in which the verb occupies the third place, must, in German, if beginning in the same way, run thus: "there comes he," "yesterday met we him," "with this money am I satisfied." 2.) That, on the other hand, in the natural order, the subject cannot be followed immediately by any other word than the verb, and in translating such expressions as "we often thought of you," "I sometimes go there," &c., the adverbs *often* and *sometimes* must be placed after their respective verbs.

Obs. 2. When stating in the foregoing observation, that the verb can be preceded only by *one* part of the sentence, we mean to exclude merely such other parts as stand in a different relation to the verb from that preceding it; but all such words and phrases as bear one and the same relation to the verb, and as can therefore be connected by a pure conjunction (§ 108), may, together with their regimens, or modifications, be considered as forming but one part, and may, as such, precede the verb. Thus, we may say, *Meinen Nachbar und (or, aber nicht) seine Kinder habe ich eingeladen*, *my neighbour and (or, but not) his children, I have invited*; *In einem Thal bei armen Hirten, erschien mit jedem jungen Jahr, so bald die ersten Lerchen schwirrten, ein Mädchen schön und wunderbar*, *in a valley among poor shepherds, there appeared with every spring (lit. every young year), as soon as the first larks chirped, a maiden fair and wonderful (Schiller.)* This sentence consists of three parts besides the verb, viz. the subject, the circumstance of place, and that of time: each, with its adjunct, might begin the sentence and precede the verb; but whichever of these may be, the two others must stand after the verb. Thus, if the sentence had begun with the description of time, both the phrase "with every new year" and the subordinate clause "as soon, &c.," might have preceded the verb, but none of the other words. This applies also to dependent clauses beginning the sentence: we may, for instance, say, *Da er nie Almosen giebt, obſchon er ſehr reich iſt, ſo iſt er nicht geachtet*, *as he never gives alms, although he is very rich, he is not esteemed*. Here the second clause modifies the first, which, thus modified, assigns the cause of the principal verb—of his not being esteemed. But if it were separately modifying the principal verb, implying, that he is not esteemed although he is rich, it would form a separate part of the sentence, and the principal verb (*iſt er*) must then follow immediately after the first clause. Thus also we may say, *Da ich nichts zu thun habe, und das Wetter ſo ſchön iſt, ſo will ich ſpazieren gehen*, *as I have nothing to do, and the weather being ſo fine, I will take a walk*; for the two first clauses imply both the same modification (viz. the inducement) of the principal verb. But we could not say, as in English, "Although I have much to do, yet the weather being so fine, I will take a walk," for the two clauses modifying the verb in

different ways and thus forming two parts, could not both precede it. We should therefore say, *Obgleich ich viel zu thun habe, so will ich doch spazieren gehen, da das Wetter so schön ist.* (Compare also the examples in § 108, *Obs.* 1.) The same remarks obtain with the subject when forming the first part of the sentence, for though any word depending on the verb could not be inserted between the subject and the verb (see the end of *Obs.* 1), yet all that defines the former,—as, a relative clause, an adjective in abstract (§ 50), with its dependents, or an adverb,—may; as, *Der Mann, den Sie so sehr bewundern, ist mein Nachbar, the man whom you admire so much, is my neighbour; Der König, von seinen Truppen verlassen, mußte sich seinen Feinden ergeben, the king, deserted by his troops, was obliged to surrender to his enemies.* We must however observe, that when such adjectives precede the subject, they create an inversion; *Von seinen Truppen verlassen, mußte sich der König, &c.*; probably, because in the latter arrangement it refers directly to the verb, assigning the cause of the surrender (if it referred immediately to the substantive it precedes, it must be inflected—see § 50, *Obs.* 1), whilst in the former order it refers directly to the substantive, being equivalent to, *der König, der von seinen Truppen verlassen war*, which indicates the cause *indirectly*, by implication only.—The adverbs *nur, only; beinahe, almost, nearly; schon, already*, and perhaps a few others, may likewise refer either to the subject or to its verb; in the former case, they may follow or precede the noun without affecting its position; in the latter case, their natural place being after the verb, they create an inversion if beginning the sentence; as, *Nur er (or, er nur) versteht uns nicht, he alone does not understand us; Beinahe zehn Menschen sind ertrunken, nearly ten people were drowned; and, Nur versteht er uns nicht, the only thing is, he does not understand us; Beinahe wären zehn Menschen ertrunken, ten people were near being drowned.* See also the examples of *auch*, p. 264; those of *so* (used connectively), p. 266; and § 108, *Obs.* 2, respecting the influence of conjunctions on the position of words.—In conclusion, we may observe, that certain adverbs and phrases, such as, *nun! or, gut! well! wahrlich! or, in der That! indeed! freilich! to be sure! allerdings, certainly, &c.*, are sometimes placed at the beginning of a sentence as a kind of interjectional transition, in which case they do not affect the position of the subject; as, *Nun! wir werden sehen, well! we shall see; Wahrlich! er hat sein Wort gehalten, indeed! he has kept his word; Allerdings (or, ohne Zweifel), ich hätte schweigen sollen, no doubt, I ought to have been silent.*

Obs. 3. If the subject of the verb is, from its importance, to be made more conspicuous, it is, in the inverted order, placed as near to the end as can be; as, *In einem solchen Sturm wird sich wohl niemand hinaus wagen, in such a storm, I dare say, nobody will venture out.* (See also the second example in the foregoing *Obs.*) Not unfrequently the indefinite *es* is put at the beginning for that purpose (see § 88, *Obs.* 4). In

subordinate clauses, the nominative may be preceded by all the other members of the clause but the verb with its component. Thus, the above example might then run so: *Da in einem solchen Sturm sich wohl niemand hinaus wagen wird.*

Obs. 4. The finite verb begins the sentence in all the cases where it is done in English, viz.: 1.) In interrogative sentences when we ask for mere affirmation or negation of the sentence; as, *Kann er es nicht thun, oder will er nicht?* *can he not do it, or will he not*?* 2.) In the imperative mood (see § 131). 3.) In many optative sentences; as, *Wöge er immer glücklich seyn!* *may he always be happy!* 4.) When the conjunction *wenn, if*, is omitted.—which construction is more extensively used in German than in English (see p. 266). To which may be added the construction with *doch*, implying that anything is unusual, or not in accordance with what has just been stated; as, *Warum sollte ich unzufrieden seyn? habe ich doch alles was ich brauche!* *why should I be dissatisfied? have I not all I want!* See also Note (†), p. 232.

From the preceding account of the German order of words it will be seen that its chief peculiarities are, 1st, that the *assertive* verb always occupies the second place of its sentence, the *non-assertive*, the last; 2ndly, that the predicate is either the last part of the sentence, or, if the finite verb is not assertive, the last but one; and lastly, that the adjective, preceded by all its dependents, may be put before its substantive. This tendency of making the dependent parts precede their principal, marshalling, as it were, words and phrases according to their rank and office, gives to a long sentence great unity and strength. And if it cannot be denied that, from the facility it affords of inserting phrase within phrase and clause within clause, some writings abound with long, involved, and intricate sentences; yet it may safely be asserted, that such blemishes are to be ascribed entirely to want of care, skill, or taste; and are seldom found in the writings of the present day, at least never in those of good and careful writers. To these, on the contrary, the German construction affords unusual means of forming clear and well turned periods. They may, by some inversion, call forth attention at the very beginning of the sentence, sustain and increase it in its progress by closely-linked and well arranged members, and satisfy it only at the end by a phrase, or a single word, which completes the full meaning of the period, and throws back light on every part of it. In familiar language, the members of a sentence are, of course, less closely connected; the first frequently containing the principal import, whilst the others follow like after-thoughts.

* In such questions as, *Wo ist er?* *where is he?* *Wen meinen Sie?* *whom do you mean?* &c., the transposition of the nominative may be explained simply from the principle of inversion, the verb occupying its usual second place.

APPENDIX.

ON VERSIFICATION.

A VERSE consists of feet ; a foot, of two or three syllables, generally of different quantity. We have therefore to consider, 1.) the quantity of syllables ; 2.) the nature of poetical, or rather, metrical, feet ; and lastly, that of verses with their pauses (*cæsurae*).

Obs. 1. Rhyme being formed in the same manner as in English, needs no particular notice. It is moreover a mere ornamental addition to verse, and consequently not indispensable. Double rhyme, we may observe in passing, is in German far more common than in English. Imperfect rhymes, occurring sometimes, have been noticed at pages 13 and 16.

I. *Metrical quantity*, or the quantity of a syllable in a verse, is not regulated by the length of time required for its utterance (though this has often some influence on it ; see the following Rule 2, and *Obs.* 3, and compare § 21, Rule 2), but chiefly by its relative emphasis, i. e. by the stress or remission with which it is pronounced ; as may be seen from the following rules :—

1.) Emphatic or accented syllables (§ 15, seqq.) are long ; unemphatic or unaccented syllables are short ; as, Väter, heütē, Nāchbār, glück-lichēr, Gēdūld, Plānēt, Thēātēr.

2.) Syllables with a secondary accent (§ 21) are of doubtful or common quantity,—that is, they may be used as long or as short, according to the exigence of the metre ; as, Kāiserīnn, Brūdērschāft, E`lēphānt.—Respecting compounds, see Rule 4.

3.) The preceding rules apply only to words of more than one syllable ; the quantity of monosyllables is regulated by the same law as the *syllabic* accent (§ 15), namely, by the relative importance of a word arising from its signification, and by which it may become more or less emphatic than those with which it is associated. Accordingly, substantives, adjectives, and verbs of one syllable, are long ; also particles implying motion (ab, auf, &c. ; as, Berg auf, Himmel an, &c.). On the other hand, such monosyllables as denote merely the accidents of other words, viz. the articles, pronouns, auxiliary verbs, prepositions, conjunctions, and all other particles, but those just mentioned, are of common quantity.

4.) In compounds, every component part is said to retain the quantity which it has as a separate word ; as, Väterland Schlüpfwinkēl, ābgēbrōchēn Ländstūrm*. The particles an, auf, aus, &c., whether consi-

* The second syllable in dissyllabic compound nouns almost invariably occurs in an unemphatic place, and may indeed, if the voice is not retarded

dered as prepositions or adverbs (§ 107, *Obs.* 1), are always long in composition; as, Aūslānd, Nāchmittag, Vōrstadt, Mītbürger. In the compounds noticed in §§ 16, 17 and 18, the first part is, however, always short, if a monosyllable: äbscheūlich vōrüber, &c.

Obs. 2. As in English, the general drift of the movement of a poem not only decides the quantity of doubtful syllables, but, not unfrequently, changes that of syllables of fixed quantity; so that a decidedly short syllable in an emphatic place must be somewhat lengthened, or accented, whilst a long one in an unemphatic place must be hurried over without any stress. Thus, in the following iambic verse, Kennst du das Land, wo die Citronen blüh'n, the verb (kennst) is in an unemphatic place; and of the two articles (das and die) the first is unemphatic, the second emphatic. In Ein Feind kommst du zurück, kommst is unemphatic. Even dissyllables denoting accidents of other words (see Rule 3) are sometimes used as two short or unemphatic syllables. Thus, the two last words in Rittersmann oder Knecht form an anapæst (˘˘˘). In the following iambic feet, on the other hand, ein fröhliches Gemüth, and in tausendem Gasepp, the inflections es and em are in emphatic places, and receive some stress.

II. *Metrical feet.* A foot in Poetry is nearly the same that a bar is in Music: it shows the standard, or the arrangement of short and long syllables prevailing through the verse.

The principal feet in German are the following five; of which two consist of two syllables, the others of three:

The *Trochee* ˘˘: lāngsām, mūthīg, lēbēn.

The *Iambus* ˘˘: Gēdūld, ēntfērt, vōrbēi.

The *Anapæst* ˘˘˘: in Gēfähr, sō bērühmt, Pöesie.

The *Amphibrach* ˘˘˘: Vērgnūgēn, gēdūldīg, vērlētzbār.

The *Dactyl* ˘˘˘: Gēistlichē, Könīginn, ēhrbārē.

To which may be added the *Spondee*; as, Stürmschritt, Fēldschlacht, Gōtt sprach. This foot, however, never occurs but as a substitute for others, chiefly for iambic, trochaic, or dactylic feet.

Obs. 3. Most of the present writers on metre adopt duplicates of feet, heavy or slow feet, and light or quick ones, according as the voice in the delivery is retarded by long vowels or many consonants, or quickened by the contrary. This, however, leads to no practical purpose; and generally, as may well be supposed, verses are made up of feet of either kind; though occasionally, when the subject may particularly require either a slow or a quick movement, one or the other kind may prevail*; as may be seen in comparing the following

by too many consonants, be considered as of doubtful quantity—especially in compounds of common occurrence,—such as, Fuhrmann, Hauptmann, Reichstag, Sonntag, in which it excites little more of our attention than a syllable of derivation.—Compare § 19. The unqualified rule which is generally given, that subordination in importance could never influence the usual quantity of a word, seems somewhat gratuitous.

* “When Ajax strives some rock's vast weight to throw,
The line, too, labours, and the words move slow,” &c.

trochaic lines, of which the first two express gloomy, the others, joyous feelings:

Schmermuthsvoll und dumpfig hallt Gesäute
Vom bemosten Kirchenturm herab, &c.—*Hölty*.

Gia! wie so mach und froh,
Wach und froh sind meine Sinnen! &c.—*Bürger*.

III. *Verse*. There are verses of various extent, from one foot to eight, or from two to seventeen syllables. Both extremes, however, are uncommon. Lines of one foot, but only as portions of a poem, sometimes occur :

Gehe !	Wie lebst,	Meine
Verschmähe	Wie bebt,	Kleine,
Die Treue ;	Wie strebt	Blöde,
Die Reue	Das Herz in mir.—	Spröde,
Kommt nach.	Goethe.	Fliehet immer, &c.

There are some entire poems in verses of two feet ; but the most common extent is, in rhymed verse from three to five feet, and in blank verse from five to six. As in English, lines of various proportion occur frequently, either at irregular, or (as in lyric poems) at regular intervals. Some verses have a short syllable more than the usual measure, and are then called *redundant* or *hypermeter*. In other verses the last foot of a line may want a short syllable, or even two, if a dactyl ; which lines may be called incomplete.

In a verse of five or six feet, the voice, from the mere necessity of taking breath, generally makes some stop or pause about the middle of the verse, which pause is called the *cæsura*, or the *principal cæsura*, there being often others besides. It can, of course, take place only after a word where the sense either requires a stop (mostly marked by the interpunctuation), or, at least, admits of it, that is, between two words not so closely united in sense as to preclude a short suspension of the voice. It is considered best placed within the third, or fourth foot. Thus in the following verse of six iambuses,

Das Recht des Herrschers | üb' ich aus zum letzten Mal,
(*The right of the ruler I exercise for the last time.*)

the reader will unconsciously make a short pause after *Herrschers* (*ruler*) ; which pause or *cæsura* divides the third foot, and with it the whole verse, into two parts : and as the movement of the second part is trochaic, a variety agreeable to the ear is produced, without exactly interrupting the measure, which is still preserved from the general drift of the rhythm. A *cæsura* between two feet could not have any such effect *. Indeed,

* A verse is considered the more perfect, the more the feet and the words of which they are formed are at variance in their rhythmical movement. Thus,

most writers on metre will not allow such a pause to be a *cæsura*, and call it *division* (Abſchnitt). Compare *Obs.* 4.

Obs. 4. There are verses which, by an invariable pause in the middle of the line, are divided into two *equal* parts, called *hemistichs* or *half-verses*. This pause, bringing strict symmetry into the verse, and forming an essential part of its structure, is called by some the *lyrical cæsura*. The principal verses of this construction employed in German, are the dactylic Pentameter (of which we speak hereafter), and the Alexandrine, an iambic of six feet, with or without an additional syllable. The *cæsura* of this verse is always after the third foot: which position forms one of its chief distinctions from other six-footed iambics. Compare the verse last quoted with the following Alexandrines:

Als ich ein Baum noch war, || hört' ich des Orpheus Lieder;
Nun ich zur Laute ward, || hört Orpheus mich jezt wieder.—*Opiz.*

We shall treat now of the different *species of verse*, adding a few specimens of each.—According as verses are made up chiefly of trochees, iambuses, anapæsts, amphibrachs, or dactyls, they are called *Trochaic*, *Iambic*, *Anapæstic*, &c. The most common metres are iambic and trochaic; especially the former.

1. *Trochaics* occur mostly in lyric poems, in lines of three, four, or five feet; verses of six feet occur also sometimes, as in the last of the subjoined specimens:

Sieh! da ſiht er auf der Matte,	Liebe denkt in süßen Tönen,
Aufrecht ſiht er da ;	Denn Gedanken ſteh'n zu fern ;
Mit dem Anſtand, den er hatte,	Nur in Tönen mag ſie gern,
Als er's * Licht noch ſah, &c.— <i>Schiller.</i>	Alles, was ſie will, verſchönen.— <i>Tieck.</i>

Sometimes the short syllable is supplied by a pause:

Klingt! | Klingt! | Klingt! |
Singt, o | Freunde, | ſingt!—*Voss.*

A dactyl occurs sometimes for a trochee, as the word *Grazien* (which is trisyllabic) in the following verse:

Klagt ihr Grazien! Klagt ihr Mufen! jammert, weinet!
Der euch theure Liebſting des Apoll erſcheinet
Nie in eurem Tempel mehr! etc.

2. *Iambics*. Here are a few specimens of lines of two feet each, alternating with redundant lines:

in this verse, *Der König* und | *die Kaiſerinn*, each foot divides a word, producing a movement founded merely in the metre of the verse, different from its usual reading in prose. But when the feet consist each of a single word, or of two words inseparable in sense (such as the article and its noun, the pronoun and its verb, &c.), it causes a sameness, which soon tires the ear.

* For *er* *daß*. In the same manner we find sometimes 'nen for *einen*, 'rein for *herein*, 'mal for *einmal*.

Wie herrlich leuch|tet
 Mir die | Natur !
 Wie glänzt die Sonne,
 Wie lacht die Flur !—*Goethe.*

Ich rühme mir
 Mein Dörfchen hier ;
 Denn schön're Auen,
 Als rings umher,
 Die Blicke schauen,
 Blüh'n nirgends mehr.—*Bürger.*

Iambics are frequently intermixed with anapæsts, as may be seen from the following stanza, in which the syllables between bars form anapæsts :

Wer reit|tet so spät | durch Nacht und Wind !
 Es ist der Wä|ster mit sei|nem Kind ;
 Er hat den Knaben wohl | in dem Arm,
 Er faßt ihn sich|er, er hält | ihn warm.

Iambics of five feet, often with a redundant syllable, are used both in the drama and in the stanza ; in the latter with, in the former without rhyme. In both compositions iambics of six feet are likewise employed. Both measures are often used in didactic poems, tales, and fables. Of the Alexandrine we have spoken in *Obs.* 4.

3. *Anapæstics* are rarely found pure, being most generally intermixed with iambuses ; and so much so, that in poems of anapæstic measure many iambic lines may be found with only one anapæst. This is particularly the case in Schiller. In the following verses, for instance, from his ballad *der Taucher*,

Und es Wä|sset, und sie|det, und brau|set, und k|ischt,
 Wie wenn Wä|sser mit Feu|er sich mengt ;
 Bis zum Hi|m|el spriz|et der dampfende Wi|sch,
 Und Flut | auf Flut | sich ohn' En|de drängt.

the two first lines consist of anapæsts only, and the third has only one iambus, whilst the last has three iambuses and only one anapæst. If the first foot is an iambus and the rest anapæsts, the verse may be scanned in amphibrachs ; as the following line from the same poem :

Hi|nab in | den strudelnd|en Tri|chter | gezogen, instead of Hi|nab | in den stru|delnd|en, &c.

The extent of anapæstic verses is generally from two to four feet.

4. *Amphibrachic* verse. In this metre, too, we have poems consisting of lines of from two to four feet ; of which we subjoin a few examples :

Wie blickt mir | der Hi|m|mel
 Im Grü|nen | so he|hr,
 Der Stä|dte | Gezümmel
 Ist rau|schend | und leer, &c.—*Matthisson.*

Der Nach|t|gall reizend|e Lieder
 Er|tönen und loden schon wieder
 Die frü|h|lichsten Stun|den ins Jahr,
 &c.—*Hagedorn.*

This measure is frequently used in comic ballads ; as, for instance, in *der Kaiser und der Aht*, by *Burger*,

Ich will euch erzählen ein Märchen gar schnurrig,
 Es war 'mal ein Kaiser, der Kaiser war kurrig;
 Auch war 'mal ein Abt, ein gar stattlicher Herr,
 Nur Schade! sein Schäfer war klüger als er, &c.

Some of Goethe's ballads, too, are in this metre.

5. *Dactyls* vary from two to four feet. Generally, the last foot is incomplete, consisting merely of one emphatic syllable, or of a trochee, as triple rhyme is not usual: though sometimes it is met with in short dactylic verses, as the subjoined second example shows:

Bier Elemente
 Innig gesellt,
 Bilden das | Leben,
 Bauen die | Welt, &c.—Schiller.

Weg mit dem zitternden,
 Alles verbitternden
 Zweifeln von hier!
 Nur die verbündete,
 Ewig begründete
 Wonne sey dir! &c.—Goethe.

See also the dactyls of four feet, at page 360.

6. The *dactylic* or *heroic Hexameter*. This verse, adopted from ancient poetry*, consists, as its name indicates, of six feet; the fifth of which almost invariably is a dactyl, the sixth either a trochee or a spondee, and the others are generally dactyls intermixed with spondees; for which latter, however, trochees are often substituted in German. The measure of this verse is then as follows:

- ˘ ˘ | - ˘ ˘ | - ˘ ˘ | - ˘ ˘ | ˘ ˘ | - ˘

The cæsure is not unfrequently within the fourth foot, joined sometimes with one in the second; but more generally it falls within the third foot, either, as in the following first verse, after the emphatic syllable, or, as in the second, after the first unemphatic syllable.

Heiß dir | Pfleger Holmers! || ehrwürdiger | Mund des Drakels.

Nenne sie | Klagestimme || des | Nachhalls | ihrem Geliebten.

The second foot of the second line, and the sixth of both verses, are trochees; all the other dissyllabic feet are spondees.—This verse as well as the next (the Pentameter) are never used with rhyme.

We subjoin the beginning of the translation of the *Odyssey* by Voss.

Melde den Mann mir Muse, den Vielgewandten, der vielfach
 Umgeirrt, als Troja, die heilige Stadt, er zerstört;

* We need not notice the other ancient measures which have been imitated in German, as they occur only in Odes and translations of little importance. The hexameter, however, and with it the pentameter, has been much cultivated, and its adoption found enthusiastic admirers in its time. Of the number of poems in this measure, Klopstock's *Messias*, Goethe's *Hermann und Dorothea*, and Voss' translation of Homer, are most known. A short explanation of its construction may therefore be acceptable to some students.

Vieler Menschen Städte geseh'n, und Sitte gelernt hat,
 Auch im Meere so viel herztränkende Leiden erduldet,
 Strebend für seine Seele zugleich und der Freunde Zukunft.

7. The *dactylic Pentameter*. This verse is, by an invariable pause in the middle, divided into two hemistichs, each of two (dactylic) feet and a half. In the whole, therefore, the verse has five feet (whence its name); yet some consider it as consisting of six, the third and sixth foot (which have only one long syllable each) being respectively completed by the cæsural and final pauses. The place of dactyls may in the first hemistich be supplied by spondees (or trochees); in the second, this substitution, though occurring sometimes, is considered exceptionable. The measure of this verse is then

- ˘˘ | - ˘˘ | - || - ˘˘ | - ˘˘ | -

This verse occurs only in alternity with the hexameter, which together constitute what is called the *elegiac* verse. It is however employed not merely in elegy, but also in epigrammatic and sententious poetry, of which latter we subjoin a few examples from Schiller:

Thuer ist | mir der | Freund, || doch | auch den | Feind kann ich | nützen;
 Zeigt mir der | Frennd was ich | kann, || lehrt mich der | Feind was ich | soll.

Sieh! voll Hoffnung vertraust du der Erde den goldenen Samen,
 Und erwartest im Lenz || frühlich die keimende Saat:
 Nur in die Furche der Zeit bedenkst du dich Thaten zu streuen,
 Die von der Weisheit gesä't || still für die Ewigkeit blüh'n.

The various species of verse have each some characteristic peculiarity: dactyls, for instance, are light and sprightly; trochaics—especially when interspersed with spondees—rather steady and serious; anapaests have more of impetuosity; whilst the movement of the amphibrachic measure is sportive and undulating, as it were. By these peculiarities each species may, more or less, suit particular subjects; and by the selection of a proper measure a very happy effect is often produced; which becomes still more striking when, as is sometimes the case, the metre changes with the subject in the same poem.

Thus Schiller, in his poem, *die Würde der Frauen*, contrasts in alternate stanzas the character and manners of women with those of men: the former he describes in dactyls, the latter in trochaics; as may be seen from the following beginning of it:

Ehret die Frauen! Sie flechten und weben
 Himmlische Rosen ins irdische Leben,
 Flechten der Liebe beglückendes Band;
 Und in der Grazie züchtigem Schleier,
 Nähren sie wachsam das ewige Feuer
 Schöner Gefühle mit heiliger Hand.

Ewig aus der Wahrheit Schranken
 Schweift des Mannes wilde Kraft,
 Unstätt treiben die Gedanken
 Auf dem Meer der Leidenschaft, &c.

Ramler, in describing the floating of Ino in the sea, very judiciously uses the amphibrachic measure :

Wo bin ich ? O Himmel !
 Ich athme noch Leben ?
 O Wunder ! ich walle
 Im Meere ! mich heben
 Die Wellen empor !

Similar to the effect arising from the adaptation of the metre to the subject, is that of adapting the sound of the verse to its subject by the selection of words. As an example, we may quote a verse from Schiller's *Lied von der Glocke*, referring to the weighing of the bell out of the pit :—

Ziehst ! ziehet ! hebt !

From Bürger, especially, many examples of this nature might be adduced, if we could make room for them*.

The adaptation of sound to the sense is, in German, often connected with alliteration†. Thus, in the following example, all the words of the first line imply and imitate sounds :

Lispel, Raute, lispel linde,
 Wie durch Laub die Abendwinde ;
 Wecke mit dem Spiel der Lüne
 Meine Süße, meine Schöne,
 Von dem leisen Schlummer auf.

In the following lines by Arndt (with which we conclude this subject) the alliterated words *hebt*, *hoch* and *Himmel*, most likely are cognates ; as well as the corresponding English words, *heave*, *high*, and *Heaven* :

Hebt das Herz ! hebt die Hand !
 Hebt sie zu der Himmel Meister !
 Hebt sie zu dem Geist der Geister !
 Hebt sie hoch vom Erdenland !

* The effect of the well known verse in the *Odyssey* imitating the rolling down of the stone has been pretty well preserved in the translation, in this hexameter :—

Hurtig hinab mit Gepolster entrollte der tüdische Marmor.

† This will be found very natural in an original language, of which the greater part of words is derived from a comparatively small number of primitives (see p. 5). Hence, too, there is a great number of phrases in German, the words of which are connected both by alliteration and sense ; as, in *Bind* und *Wetter* ; mit *Leib* und *Leben* ; *hoffen* und *harten* ; *frank* und *frei*, &c.

SUPPLEMENTARY NOTES.

Note to page 46.—Mit, with.

That part of this work was already printed off when I perceived that Dr. Grimm, in the third volume of his often quoted grammar, adduces these two particles as two distinct roots, stating at the same time that *with* does not exist in Gothic and German; that it is however the primitive of *wider*, *against*. He seems therefore to presume their identity to be out of the question. There does not appear any ground however, either in the form or in the import of these particles, against the supposition of their being identical. With respect to the final letters *t* and *th*, Grimm himself introduces the Gothic *mith*, the Anglo-Saxon *mid*, and the Dutch *met*, as identical with the German *mit*. The interchange of *m* with other labials, especially with *w* and *v*, is generally known, and wants no further confirmation here*. I will however, as peculiarly analogous, refer to the Greek *meta* being in the Æolic *meta*. With regard to the import of these particles, the preposition *with* is in English equivalent to *mit*; in Anglo-Saxon it signifies also opposition, like *with* in *withstand*, and like the German *wider*. The two ideas however are more closely connected than may at first appear. Things coming in contact may easily be conceived as in opposition to each other. Even the German *mit* is used sometimes in the latter sense; as, *mit einem fechten*, *to fight with* (i. e. *against*) *a person*. Very likely therefore the verb *to meet*, is the parent both of *mit* and *with*†. For the same reason Scaliger's derivation of the Latin *contra* from *cum* (*con* in composition), seems very probable, and corroborates the above remark.

Note to page 46.—Tilt, tent.

The last form exists also in Dutch and Low German. The usual derivation of *tent*, from the Latin *tentorium*, is very improbable; as the name of an article indispensable in primitive ages can, in an original language, hardly be otherwise than vernacular. Adelung's opinion, that it is related to *tentorium*, is more probable. Very likely *tent* is identical with *tilt*, and derived from the verb *to tilt*, as *tentorium* is from the Latin verb *tendere*. Even the French *tente* is most likely Teutonic; for the Latin termination *orium* is in French generally changed into *oire*, as *repertoire*, *auditoire*, *consistoire*, &c.

* In Welsh, *m*, under certain circumstances, is regularly changed into *w*. There is some ground for supposing that in the Teutonic, too, *w* may in the first stage of the language have been, in some cases, a mere modification of *m*.

† It is not improbable that even the Gothic *ga-witan* Old German, *fi-witan* (*to connect*), as well as the English *to wed*, and *mate*, belong to the same family.

Note to § 69.

The two simple tenses, the present and imperfect, were originally the only tenses of the verb; the present being used also (as it still is sometimes—see p. 328) in reference to future time, whilst the imperfect served for all the tenses of past time. The compound tenses, implying a figurative use of the words of which they are composed, must, of course, be of a later origin. And indeed, in Ulphilas (p. 1), there is no indication of a compound past tense; all the past tenses of the Greek text being rendered by the Gothic imperfect; though the future is sometimes expressed by means of an auxiliary (compare note (*), p. 340). The first appearance of a compound past tense in German is, according to Grimm, found in a record of the eighth century; but in the writings of the ninth century such tenses are already in full use. The auxiliaries employed were nearly the same as are still in use—namely, *sollen*, *shall*, for the future (see note (*), p. 328), and *haben* and *seyn* for past tenses; the former with transitive verbs, the latter with those neuter verbs which still employ it (§ 80). In the oldest German records, another verb denoting possession, *viz. eigan*, *to own*, was used as well as *haben*; which however does not occur in later records (see *Grimm's Deut. Gram.* vol. iv.). In all compound tenses the past participle was originally treated as an adjective, agreeing in gender, case, and number, with the noun to which it referred, *i. e.* with the subject of the action when combined with *seyn*, and with the object or accusative when combined with *haben*—as in some instances it is still in French, *e. g. les lettres que j'ai écrites*, &c.

In the production of the various compound tenses, the language, it will be perceived, simply made use of the figure of Metonymy, taking in the future tense the cause for the effect, and in the past tenses the effect for the cause; and as “I shall write a letter,” which literally denotes the present inducement (obligation) to a future action, is employed to express that future action itself, so “I have written a letter,” which primarily implies the present effect of a past action (the possession of a letter written), is employed to denote that past action itself, or the completion of that action (compare § 69). The same remark applies to neuter verbs conjugated with *seyn*. Indeed with most of these, the past participle is used to this day both in its primary and figurative sense, expressing the effect or the present state, as well as the cause or the previous action. Thus, *Die Blume ist verwelkt*, may denote either *the flower is*, or *has, faded*. The conjugation of neuter verbs with *haben* (§ 80) must have originated at a later period, when the primary import of the combination of the past participle with *haben*—*i. e.* that of possession—was no more felt.

Note to the Irregular Conjugation (§ 83).

This conjugation, which observes strict analogies (see § 86), must not

be considered as a corruption of the regular ; it is only the older and, most likely, the primitive conjugation. For the producing of new forms by changing the vowel merely, is so simple, that nature herself seems to have taught it to man when he endeavoured to imitate her sounds. It has been observed by Grimm that the three principal vowels used as a means of conjugation, viz. i, a, u (sing, sang, sung), are also the oldest vowels existing in Sanscrit. The priority of this conjugation may be supposed also from the fact, that most of the verbs following it denote natural functions and occupations, and must therefore belong to the very first words of language. At a later period, when the import of the changes of vowels was no more felt, this form of conjugation became obsolete ; and then, to denote past time in newly formed verbs, recourse was had to inflection, or rather composition,—for the inflections in their origin most likely were current in the language as separate words. This later form is now called the regular conjugation, having been followed by all verbs formed since its adoption and by many others which originally followed the old conjugation ; so that in the whole they form now such a majority as to cause those still following the old conjugation to be considered as mere exceptions,—that is, as irregular verbs.—In the oldest Teutonic dialect—in the Gothic—both these forms of conjugations existed ; together with a third form, comprehending a considerable number of verbs. In this third conjugation the past tense is formed by reduplication, as in Græc ; as *faltha* (*I fold*), *faifalth* (*I folded*). The imperfect of the verb *thun*, *to do* (that, *did*), is supposed by Grimm to be a remainder of that Teutonic reduplication.

THE END.



